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FINAL REPORT STUDY OF FUEL CELLS USING STORABLE ROCKET PROPELLANTS

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I. INTRODUCTION

The proposed use of storable rocket propellants for many space missions suggests the possibility of their utilization in a fuel cell to produce electrical energy.

A fuel cell using storable rocket propellants has the important advantage over the more conventional hydrogen-oxygen cell of eliminating the necessity for cryogenic facilities. Thus, problems of supply, storage, and handling are simplified or eliminated.

A. OBJECTIVE

The objective of this work was to perform a feasibility study of hydrazine-type fuels and dinitrogen tetroxide (N_2O_4) or chlorine trifluoride (ClF_3) oxidants for use in fuel cells. This was a preliminary investigation whose ultimate aim was to develop a fuel cell design that would operate relatively efficiently on a variety of storable rocket propellants such as may be used in space missions in the future. The work was conducted by combining theoretical and analytical studies with planned experimentation.

The literature provides free energy data from which the reversible potential of the oxidant and fuel electrode can be estimated. Also, the reversible energy-to-weight ratio for a given oxidant-reductant system can be calculated. Therefore, upper limits of performance can be predicted. The purpose of calculating the theoretical performance of fuel cells was threefold:

- 1. To provide a basis for comparing and choosing systems for study.
- 2. To provide a measure of our state of sophistication in building cells and predicting their performance.
- 3. To indicate areas where the mechanisms are not well understood so as to provide a scope for future investigations.

The theoretical calculations are, of course, valid only for the specific reversible reaction postulated.

The experimentation both in half cells and in full cells establishes the actual performance of the electrodes, the types of reactions taking place, and the extent of the various types of polarization (activation, concentration, and IR drop). The catalytic properties of the electrolytes and the stability of catalysts under different loads in the presence of different electrolytes can only be determined experimentally.

B. SCOPE OF THIS REPORT

Theoretical studies were made of the thermodynamic properties of the fuel cell systems under study. The potentials and energy density for the most probable reactions were calculated. The heat absorbed or evolved during the reversible operation of a fuel cell was calculated. Such data provide a base from which the theoretical performance of the various proposed systems can be defined.

This report contains the following experimental data:

• Polarization Studies

- -- The anodic oxidation of hydrazine and its derivatives in acid, basic, and neutral aqueous electrolytes, in anhydrous hydrogen fluoride systems, and in nonaqueous organic systems.
- -- The cathodic reduction of nitric acid and dinitrogen tetroxide in aqueous media, the cathodic reduction of dinitrogen tetroxide in anhydrous hydrogen fluoride and in nonaqueous organic solvents, and the cathodic reduction of chlorine trifluoride in anhydrous hydrogen fluoride systems.
- -- The construction and use of vapor transport electrodes for the oxidation of hydrazine.

• Full Cell Operation

-- The construction and demonstration of the hydrazine-nitric acid and the hydrazine-dinitrogen tetroxide fuel cells.

II. SUMMARY

A. THERMODYNAMIC CALCULATIONS

The thermodynamic properties of storable propellants and the products of reaction were calculated for 25°C and 90°C. These properties (tabulated in Tables 1, 2, and 3 in Section IV) permit calculation of the reversible performance of selected electrochemical reactions in terms of voltage, energy per pound, reversible heat effects, and temperature sensitivity (Tables 4 and 5, Section IV).

Thermodynamic calculations have shown that a number of the fuel/pxidant systems investigated under this contract are endothermic when the electrochemical operations occur reversibly. Thus, hydrazine-dimitrogen tetroxide fuel cell systems, performing reversibly at 90°C, require that heat energy be supplied to the cell equivalent to 36% of the power output. Also, if certain fuels such as monomethylhydrazine (MMH), unsymmetrical dimethylhydrazine (UDMH), methanol, and propane can be reformed with water to yield hydrogen, the total operation, reforming plus using the hydrogen reversibly in a complete cell with nitric acid or dinitrogen tetroxide, will yield endothermic heat effects equal to 22-35% of the power output.

The endothermic property of those systems make them attractive for use in space vehicles where elimination of heat presents a problem and limits the module size of intrinsically exothermic fuel cell systems such as the hydrogen-oxygen system. An endothermic fuel cell also raises the possibility of using the cell as an electrochemical heat pump to absorb heat $(T \triangle S)$ at the capsule temperature and reject the heat by radiation from a tungsten filament $(5000\,^{\circ}\text{C})$ outside the capsule. Another contribution of thermodynamic calculations is the identification of phenomena that may contribute to energy loss.

Voltage losses due to the use of aqueous hydrazine (instead of pure hydrazine) and to the dissociation of nitrogen tetroxide (N_2O_4 = $2NO_2$) are negligible (1 to 2%). However, the voltage loss due to the spontaneous thermal decomposition of hydrazine ($N_2H_4\longrightarrow 2H_2$ + N_2) prior to the electrochemical reaction is not negligible and results in a loss of O.44 volt from a possible 1.47 volts. A system that prevents this spontaneous decomposition, therefore, has a significant advantage (O.44 volt) over one in which the spontaneous decomposition takes place.

If a full cell is constructed such that a pH difference exists across an ion exchange membrane, this pH difference will not contribute to the full cell potential if the current is carried only by the H+ or the OH ion. If ions other than those responsible for the pH difference carry the current, then the pH difference and the difference in chemical potential across the separator of the current carrying ions will contribute to the full-cell potential.

B. AQUEOUS SYSTEMS

1. Half-Cell Studies

a. Polarization Tests

 N_2H_4 was found to be an excellent fuel in terms of electrochemical oxidation for short-term polarization tests. The fuel performed best in base with electroplated rhodium catalysts or chemically precipitated rhodium and ruthenium catalysts. In $5M\ H_3PO_4$ electrolyte, chemically precipitated ruthenium catalysts proved superior.

Neither MMH nor UDMH showed promise as electrochemical fuels. MMH was better than UDMH. Polarization of 0.3 volt to 0.5 volt at 50 to 100 ma/cm², respectively, were found at 80°C in acid electrolyte.

HNO3, either as lM solution in 5M $\rm H_2SO_4$ or 5M solution, was an excellent electrochemical oxidant in terms of polarization curves. For a cathodic current of 100 ma/cm², 0.20 volt polarization at 30°C and less than 0.10 volt at 90°C were found using a variety of catalyst/substrate systems. Uncatalyzed carbon (Pure Carbon porous FC-13 or -14) worked nearly as well as catalyzed electrodes and proved to be stable in up to 0.5M $\rm N_2H_4$ at 90°C.

 N_2O_4 showed promise as a source of HNO_3 , as an aqueous solution of N_2O_4 , or as a gas electrode, in various electrolytes. For low temperature work aqueous N_2O_4 tested better than HNO_3 at low H^+ concentration. With gaseous N_2O_4 as oxidant on an uncatalyzed porous carbon electrode, currents of over 100 ma/cm² could be obtained without severe polarization at 30°C and 60°C .

b. Stability Tests

The electrochemical oxidation of N_2H_4 was found to be unstable in long-term tests with most catalyst/electrode systems in either acid or base. For all electroplated catalyst/substrate systems, rapid deterioration occurred within 24 hours at either 30°C or 90°C. The 90°C results were better than those at 30°C. However, chemically precipitated catalysts gave significantly better results, and Ir (32%)-Ru(68%) at 30°C in 1M KOH and 1M N_2H_4 showed less than 0.1 volt deterioration over a 700-hour period. At 90°C in 1M KOH and 1M N_2H_4 the Ir-Ru catalyst deteriorated 0.2 volt after 300 hours, and a Ru catalyst in 3M N_2H_4 and 1M KOH started at a better potential and lasted over 300 hours, with a linear deterioration before reaching 0.2 volt polarization.

In 5M H_3PO_4 , 1M N_2H_4 was not satisfactory in long-term tests. At 90°C , using chemically precipitated ruthenium catalysts in 2M N_2H_4 and 5M H_3PO_4 , a quick initial polarization of 0.1 volt occurred; thereafter, negligible polarization took place for over 600 hours.

MMH and UDMH rapidly deteriorated under long-term electro-oxidation regardless of catalyst.

5M HNO₃ with Au/SS (stainless steel) catalyst at 30°C showed no deterioration in potential after 1000 hours of continuous operation at 100 ma/cm².

c. Mechanism Tests

 N_2H_4 was found to be oxidized exclusively to N_2 in either acid or basic electrolyte within limits of experimental error.

MMH was found to be oxidized to CH₃OH and N₂ in 5M H₃PO₄, with a small amount of CH₃OH further oxidized.

UDMH was found to be oxidized to N_2 by a four-electron reaction in 5M H_3PO_4 . In 5M H_2SO_4 a mixture of products appeared; initially a two-electron reaction probably produced a tetrazine, and as deterioration of potential occurred, a mixed reaction producing some N_2 was found. The maximum electron change was about three for overall tests when the electrode failed.

HNO3, as either 5M HNO3, or as 1M HNO3 in 5M H_2SO_4 , produced NO nearly exclusively. At 30°C a small amount of N_2 was produced at Au/C electrodes. At 90°C some N_2O_4 was produced initially, but NO was the only product after reaching steady state conditions.

2. Full Cell Studies

Full cell studies demonstrated the feasibility of using hydrazine and monomethylhydrazine as fuels, and HNO_3 , N_2O_4 , and H_2O_2 as oxidants. The electrolytes consisted of 5M H_2SO_4 , 5M H_3PO_4 and KOH. Porous Teflon or Teflon-impregnated glass* vapor diffusion electrodes were demonstrated for both fuels and oxidants in combination with the above electrolytes.

A full cell was constructed using two porous Teflon electrodes pressed against a cation exchange membrane. This cell delivered 1.1 volts at 25°C, 1 atmosphere and 17.5 ma/cm² for 30 hours. The IR free voltage was 1.4 volts. This type of electrode construction appears to be stable. Feasibility of using MMH directly at this anode was also demonstrated. A material balance indicated that N₂H₅+ was the current carrying species when a cation exchange membrane was used, which accounts in part for the high open-circuit potential. Advantages of the porous Teflon electrode in combination with an ion exchange membrane are the virtual absence of spontaneous decomposition of reactants (allowing storage of the concentrated reactant in contact with the Teflon) and the elimination of reactant feeding problems. The possibility also exists of limiting the ionic species to H+ if hydrogen is the fuel or OH- if H₂O₂ is the oxidant, thus minimizing waste of reactants due to diffusion.

C. NONAQUEOUS SYSTEMS

1. Polarization Studies

The anodic oxidation of hydrazine dihydrogen fluoride (HDHF) ($N_2H_4 \cdot 2HF$) and the cathodic reduction of chlorine trifluoride (CTF) have been demonstrated in anhydrous nydrogen fluoride (AHF) and in AHF-KF melts. Current densities up to 5 ma/cm² were attained at carbon anodes in lM HDHF in AHF at 0.5 volt polarization and at 3°C. Current densities of 20 ma/cm² were attained during the cathodic reduction of CTF in AHF at 3°C. Current densities as high as 100 ma/cm² were attained during the cathodic reduction of 1.0M dinitrogen tetroxide (N_2O_4) at ruthenized platinum electrodes in AHF, but potentials were too low to be of interest. Current densities up to 100 ma/cm² were attained at anodes in contact with 1M HDHF in a molten solution of KF·3HF at 85°C and at anodic polarization of 0.5 volt. Cathodic current densities of 5 ma/cm² were demonstrated in the same electrolyte at 85°C and at the same polarization.

^{*}A Pall membrane, which is a Teflon-impregnated porous glass material.

^{**}Ionics, Inc. Cation exchange membrane 61 AZL-183, 85% N2H4·H2O fuel - 70% HNO3 Oxidant

^{***} Test arbitrarily terminated after 30 hours.

2. Reactant Compatibility

Upper compatibility limits for solutions of hydrazine and chlorine trifluoride in anhydrous hydrogen fluoride were established. Solutions of these reactants in concentrations greater than 1 molar of oxidant or reductant reacted violently. Below this concentration, although there may be some reaction, it should be possible to design a cell with an efficient separator to prevent excessive heat generation due to chemical mixing.

3. Reference Electrodes in Anhydrous Hydrogen Fluoride

The silver, cadmium, and lead fluoride electrodes and the palladium-hydrogen reference electrode were constructed, and relative potentials were assigned in anhydrous hydrogen fluoride in 0.5M sodium fluoride at 3°C, and also in the composition KF.3HF at 85°C. (Table 34 and 35).

4. Organic Solvents

The anhydrous organic solvents, acetonitrile (AN), N,N-dimethyl-formamide (DMF), propylene carbonate, and pyridine, were investigated for the cathodic reduction of N_2O_4 and for the oxidation of HDHF with magnesium perchlorate, potassium thiocyanate, and tetramethyl ammonium chloride as conducting salts. The best combination of solvent and electrolyte for the anodic oxidation of hydrazine was DMF with tetramethyl ammonium chloride, which was used with a platinized steel electrode to give a current density of $10~\text{ma/cm}^2$ at a polarization of 0.5~volt.

The best organic solvent for the cathodic reduction of N_2O_4 was AN with an electrolyte of magnesium perchlorate. This combination resulted in a cathodic current density of 70 ma/cm² at 0.5 volt polarization at the platinized steel electrode.

5. Solid Palladium Anode

A hydrazine solid palladium electrode was demonstrated as an anode and as a reference electrode in anhydrous hydrogen fluoride. An anodic current of 10 ma/cm² was carried at 3°C with a polarization of 0.5 volt.

III. CONCLUSIONS

A. THERMODYNAMIC CALCULATIONS

The endothermic properties of the reversible electrochemical reaction of dinitrogen tetroxide with hydrazine at 25°C (31.6% of the maximum free energy), with hydrogen (18.2%), with methanol (33.4%), and with propane (35.2%) make these systems potentially attractive for space vehicles where heat elimination is a problem. Thermal decomposition of hydrazine ($N_2H_4 = 2H_2 + N_2$) prior to the anodic reaction reduces the endothermicity to that of the hydrogen-dinitrogen tetroxide system.

The use of these fuel cell systems as heat pumps in space capsules to absorb heat $(T \Delta S)$ at the capsule temperature and reject the heat by radiation from a tungsten filament outside the capsule is a possibility.

B. AQUEOUS SYSTEMS

Hydrazine was found to be an excellent electrochemical fuel. It is anodically oxidized exclusively to nitrogen and water in either acid or base. The best catalyst for long-term anodic oxidation of hydrazine was chemically precipitated iridium-ruthenium on a carbon substrate. This system gave an initial potential of +0.08 volt vs HE at 100 ma/cm² load; and after a 700-hour test period demonstrated a deterioration of potential of only 0.1 volt.

Unsymmetrical dimethylhydrazine and monomethylhydrazine gave poor initial electrochemical performance; potentials rapidly deteriorated under long-term testing regardless of catalyst type.

Nitric acid, either as 1M solution in 5M sulfuric acid or as 5M solution, was an excellent electrochemical oxidant, operating 1000 hours at +0.98 volts vs HE at 100 ma/cm². A gold-catalyzed stainless steel cathode showed no deterioration in potential during a 1000-hour test. The nitric acid was reduced nearly exclusively to nitric oxide.

Limited work done with dinitrogen tetroxide showed that it compares favorably with nitric acid as an electrochemical oxidant.

Full-cell studies have demonstrated the feasibility of using hydrazine fuel with nitric acid, dinitrogen tetroxide, or hydrogen peroxide as oxidants. A full cell using porous Teflon electrodes pressed against a cation exchange membrane delivered 1.1 volts at 17.5 ma/cm² at 25°C for 30 hours.

C. NONAQUEOUS SYSTEMS

Encouraging anode current densities as high as 100 ma/cm² at 0.48 volt vs HE were attained in electrodes in contact with hydrazine dihydrogen fluoride in a molten solution of KF·3HF at 85°C. It appears that continued work on the hydrazine/chlorine trifluoride system in anhydrous hydrogen fluoride is justified.

With the nonaqueous organic electrolytes acetonitrile, N,N-dimethyl-formamide, propylene carbonate, and pyridine, half-cell tests demonstrated the cathodic reduction of dinitrogen tetroxide and anodic oxidation of hydrazine. The results are not sufficiently promising to warrant further work.

IV, THEORETICAL STUDIES

The purpose of obtaining thermodynamic properties by theoretical analysis is to permit calculation of the reversible performance of selected electrochemical reactions in terms of voltage, energy per pound, efficiency, and reversible heat effects and to determine the sensitivity of this performance to temperature changes.

The number of possible electrochemical reactions that can arbitrarily be written is large. To insure that the calculations will have meaning and to avoid confusion from detailing all the possible reactions, only those systems have been analyzed whose practicality can be supported by experimental evidence.

A. THERMODYNAMIC TABULATION

To calculate the potential of a fuel cell system, it is necessary to know the free energy of formation of the reactants and products.

Table 1 lists the thermodynamic properties for the pure chemical species at 298°K (25°C) and 1 atmosphere. For hydrazine, all the properties except free energy of formation of the liquid (ΔF_{f}° liq) were available in the literature. Since the liquids are not in equilibrium with the vapors at 298°K and 1 atm, ΔF_{f}° liq $\neq \Delta F_{f}^{\circ}$ gas

The difference in the ΔF_{f}° for liquid and gas results from the entropy change in compressing the vapor from its autogenous pressure to l atmosphere. This calculation is shown in Appendix A-1. For monomethylhydrazine and unsymmetrical dimethylhydrazine, the heat of formation $(\Delta\,H_{f}^{\circ})$ was calculated from literature values of the heat of combustion $(\Delta\,H_{C}^{\circ}),$ which, in turn, permitted calculation of $\Delta\,F_{f}^{\circ}$ through the relation $\Delta\,F=\Delta\,H-T\,\Delta\,S.$

The voltage of this fuel cell is determined from Δ F of the reaction:

$$\Delta F_{joules} = -nFE$$

where n is the number of electrons transferred, F = 96,500 coulombs, and E is the voltage.

Table 4 presents the energy yield and the open-circuit potentials for the various fuel-oxidant couples.

The fuel-cell potentials were calculated for reversible reactions. They represent, therefore, an upper limit of performance

Given the thermodynamic properties at 25°C (Table 1), these properties at 90°C were calculated from heat capacity data:

Table 1

THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES OF FUEL CELL REACTANTS AND PRODUCTS

	Source	\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\\	t)	(5)	Calculated	$egin{pmatrix} 7\\ 6 \end{pmatrix}$	(8) Calculated	
o	cal deg mole	57.41		66.61		72.82	68.034	64.53 64.53 64.53 65
tmosphere	AF'r Kal/mole	37.89			47.64	49.58	-29.542	0 -65.002 -22.685 -23.491 -32.719 -32.81 -34.26 -54.26 0 0
Ideal Gas at 25°C and 1 Atmosphere	AH f	22.75			21.351	19.632	-38.869	0 -64.500 -21.970 -21.970 -21.6 -48.10 -57.798 -24.82 -57.798
Ideal Gas a	AH° vap Kal/mole	10.700		8,648		8.366	6.718	
	Seal deg mole	29.41		39.66		47.86	644.44	30.3 30.3 16.716 1.36
Atmosphere	AF°f Kal/mole	35.54			41.83	48.65	-29.229	-19.100 -39.17 -56.69
Liquid at 25°C and 1 Atmosphere	AH° Kal/mole	12.05			12.703	11.266	-45.587	-41.404 -57.04 -68.317
Liquid a	AH° combust Kral/mole	-148.62	-311.71			-473.38		
	Compound	N2H4	CH3NHNH2			(CH _S) 2NNH ₂	ClFs	F2 C12 HF HF HC1 N204 NO CR20H CO2 CO2 H20 H20 H20 C Graphite B

*Calculated from spectroscopic data

Table 2 . THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES OF FUELS

			Liquid				Ideal Vapor			
	cal mole K	kaal per gram mole	am mole		koal	10/[817	elom meno/lerx		kcal	
	d _D	ΔH° combust.	∆H°	ΔF°	S	∆Hevap	ΔHç	$\Delta F_{\mathbf{f}}^{\circ}$	S.	Source
N2H4 at 298°K l atm	23.62 ₁₁₉	-148.62	12.05	35.54	29.41	10.70	22.75	37.89	57.41	$\binom{\lfloor 4 \rfloor}{2 \rfloor}$ Calculated
NzH4 at 363°K 1 atm	24.86119		12.278	40.634	34.177	10.040	22.318	41.235	60.177	Calculated
CH _S NHNH ₂ at 298°K 1 atm	32,25 _{11q}	-311.71	12.703	41.83	39.66	9.648	21.351	44.54	66.61	${4 \choose 5}$ Calculated
CHSNHNHz at 363°K 1 atm	33.10 ₁₁₉		11.879	48.384	46.112	8.633	20.512	48.342	70.009	Calculated
(CHs) ANNHE at 298°K 1 atm	39.21 ₁₁₉	-473.38	11.266	48.65	47.86	8.366	19.632	49.58	72.82	$egin{pmatrix} 7 \ (6) \end{pmatrix}$ Calculated
(CH ₃) ₂ NNH ₂ at 363°K 1 atm	41.37119		11.266	962.99	55.805	7.483	18.748	56.188	78.092	Calculated

Table 3 THERMODYNAMIC PROPERTIES OF OXIDANTS AND REACTION PRODUCTS

	Source	(1) (6)	Calculated	(5)	Calculated (10)	(1)	Calculated (11)	(1) (12)	Calculated (12)	timer	Calc from Gp (10)	(2)	Calculated (10)
	g-mole °C	72.73	75.935 cal	45.77	47.144 Ca		51.747 Ca.	45.106	46.767 Ca	49.003 La	50.402 Ca	31.21	32.571 Ca
t l atm	ole AFr	23.491	28.146	0	. ·	20.719	20.527	-54.635	-53.933	0	o	0	0
Ideal Vapor at 1 atm	Koal per gram mole	2.309	1.99	0	0	21.6	21.607	-57.798	-57.929	0	0	0	0
	g_mole °C		·	•				16.716	20.471				
	○ F°							-56.69	-54.196				
Liquid at 1 atm	Kcal per gram mole \$\triangle H_{\triangle} \triangle H_{\triangle}^{\triangle}\$							-68.317	44t.7d+				
	Cp cal mole°C	15.68gas	16.81gas	6.95gas	6.98gas	7.1620	7.17gas	17.98 ₁₁₉	18.0911q	7.02gas	7.17 _{gas}	6.88	6.91gas
	÷	N2O4 at 25°C	Nz04 at	Ne at 25°C	Ne at 90°C	NO at 25°C	No at 90°C	HzO at 25°C	H ₂ 0 at 90°C 18.0911q	02 at 25°C	02 at 90°C	H2 at 25°C	

Table 4

ENERGY YIELD AND CELL POTENTIALS FOR REVERSIBLE REACTIONS AT 25°C AND 1 ATMOSPHERE

	Watt- hr/lb	Full Cell wolts
$3N_2H_4 + 4HNO_3 - 8H_2O + 4NO + 3N_2$	610	1.45
$5N_2H_4 + 4HNO_3 \rightarrow 7N_2 + 12H_2O$	1000	1.7
$N_2H_4 + N_2O_4 \longrightarrow N_2 + 2NO + 2H_2O$	557	1.42
$2N_2H_4 + N_2O_4 \longrightarrow 3N_2 + 4H_2O$	1080	1.74
N_2H_4 + ClF_3 \longrightarrow N_2 + HCl + $3HF$	950	2.42
$3CH_3NHNH_2$ + $4HNO_3$ \rightarrow $3CH_3OH$ + $3N_2$ + $4NO$ + $5H_2O$	495	1.33
$CH_3NHNH_2 + 2HNO_3 \longrightarrow CO_2 + 2N_2 + ^4H_2O$	1000	1.41
3CH ₃ NHNH ₂ + 10HNO ₃ 3CO ₂ + 3N ₂ + 10NO + 14H ₂ O	550	1.16
$CH_3NHNH_2 + N_2O_4 \longrightarrow CH_3OH + 2NO + N_2 + H_2O$	460	1.30
$3(CH_3)_2NNH_2 + 16HNO_3 \longrightarrow 6CO_2 + 3N_2 + 16NO + 2OH_3$	H ₂ O 535	1.09
$5(CH_3)_2NNH_2 + 16HNO_3 \longrightarrow 10CO_2 + 13N_2 + 28H_2O$	1000	1.34
$(CH_3)_2NNH_2 + 4N_2O_4 \longrightarrow 2CO_2 + N_2 + 8NO + 4H_2O$	480	1.06

Basis:

Liquid Phase - All Fuels

HNO₃

CH₃OH

H₂O

Cas Phase - N₂O₄

NO

HCl

HF

1.
$$\Delta H_{363} = \Delta H_{298} + \begin{pmatrix} 363 \\ 298 \end{pmatrix} \Delta C_{pdT}$$

2.
$$S_{363} = S_{298} + \begin{pmatrix} 363 \\ 298 \end{pmatrix} = \frac{C_p}{T} dT$$

In some cases the heat capacity data were provided in the form

$$C_{D} = a + bT + cT^{2} + dT^{3}$$

In other cases the C_p was tabulated versus temperature. These data were then fitted to the form

$$C_p = a + bT + cT^2$$
.

If $\triangle C_p$ is in the form:

$$\triangle C_p = \triangle a + \triangle bT + \triangle cT^2 + \triangle dT^3$$

the formula for calculating $\triangle \mathtt{H}_{\mathtt{T}}^{\circ}$ at any temperature is:

3.
$$\triangle H_T^{\circ} = I_H + \triangle aT + \frac{\triangle b}{2} T^2 + \frac{\triangle c}{3} T^3 + \frac{\triangle d}{4} T^4$$

Then from the Gibbs-Helmholtz equation:

$$4. \qquad \frac{\triangle^{\mathbf{F}}\mathring{\mathbf{T}}}{\mathbf{T}} = -\frac{\triangle^{\mathbf{H}}\mathring{\mathbf{T}}}{\mathbf{T}^{\mathbf{Z}}} \quad d\mathbf{T}$$

$$5.\frac{\triangle_{F_T}}{T} = \frac{I_H}{T} + I_F - \triangle a \ln T - \frac{\triangle_b}{2} T - \frac{\triangle_c}{6} T^2 - \frac{\triangle_d}{12} T^3$$

where I_H and I_G are constants of integration which may be evaluated by equations 3 and then 5 if $\triangle \, H^\circ$ and $\triangle \, F^\circ$ are known at any one temperature.

In order to insure that the calculated data were consistent and that arithmetic errors had not been made, the data in Tables 2 and 3 were tested for consistency by the equation $\triangle F = \triangle \text{ H-T } \triangle \text{ S}$

B. THERMODYNAMIC CALCULATIONS FOR THE N204-N2H4 CELL

Table 5 shows the calculated results obtained with the reaction

 $N_2H_{11q} + N_2O_{4gas} \longrightarrow N_{2gas} + 2NO_{gas} + 2H_2O_{gas}$ at 25°C and 90°C.

An important consideration concerning the reversible electrochemical reaction:

$$N_2H_4 + N_2O_4 \longrightarrow N_2 + 2NO + 2H_2O$$
 (gas at 90°C and 1 atm)
 $\triangle F = \triangle H - T \triangle S$

-135.6 Kcal =-86.9 Kcal - 48.7 Kcal

is the fact that heat must be supplied to the cell to maintain the temperature. This fact has two important consequences.

Table 5

THEORETICAL PERFORMANCE FOR THE FULL CELL REACTION:

	25°C at 1 atm	90°C at 1 atm
ΔH kcal/mole reaction	-86.75	- 86 . 92
∆F kcal/mole	726.86	-135.61
∆S cal/mole/deg	134.52	134.06
ΔC _D cal/mole/deg	17.93	16.06
-T∆S kcal/mole	40.11 -	48.69
Voltage	1.37	1.47 / (*)
Watt-hours/1b	537	575
Reversible Heat Effects = -T△S Btu/lb	-582.2 (endo- thermic)	- -706.7
dE/dT = volts/°C	1.45×10^{-3}	1.45 x 10 ⁻³

- 1. The cell must be supplied with heat to maintain the cell temperature. Referring to the equations above, 48.6 Kcal must be supplied for every 135.6 Kcal electrical output, or for every 100 watts electrical output, 36 watts of heat input to the cell is necessary.
- 2. If reversible potentials near 1.47 volts are achieved and the $T\Delta S$ heat is supplied by the I^2R losses in the separator, a separator with a resistance of 5.28 ohms/cm² would be required at a current density of 0.1 amp/cm². The IR loss would be 0.53 volt, which would leave a useful potential of 0.99 volt. (See Appendix A: I^2R loss necessary to sustain the cell temperature.)

An important aspect of our fuel cell development work is the ability to define which phenomenon presents problems of sufficient magnitude to be worth investigating. Phenomena that can decrease the attainable voltage and that can be investigated on paper are (1) The use of aqueous hydrazine (versus pure hydrazine), (2) the dissociation of dinitrogen tetroxide ($N_2O_4=2NO_2$), and (3) the spontaneous thermal decomposition of hydrazine ($N_2H_4 \rightarrow 2H_2 + N_2$) at the catalyst surface prior to the electrochemical reaction.

The free energy loss due to the solution of hydrazine in water is equal to:

The vapor pressure of hydrazine in the pure state is known and the partial pressure of hydrazine aqueous solutions can be calculated from knowledge of the activity coefficients. The activity coefficient is obtained from azeotropic data. Use of these data in the van Laar and Gilliland equations gives a description of the activity coefficient as a function of composition and temperature. These calculations appear in Appendix A.

The free energy loss due to the reduction of the hydrazine vapor pressure is 1.04 Kcal, which, compared to an over-all free energy of 135.6 Kcal available from a system operating with pure hydrazine, represents a 0.77% loss in free energy or voltage. It is thus a negligible effect.

The free energy loss due to the dissociation of dinitrogen tetroxide $(N_2O_4 \rightarrow 2NO_2)$ is obtained by:

1. Calculating the standard free energy change from knowledge of the equilibrium constant: $-\Delta F^{\circ} = RTlnK$

^{*} Ref. 33, pp. 56-59.

- 2. The equilibrium constant is known as a function of temperature (see Figure 1) and allows calculation of the partial pressures of N_2O_4 and NO_2 in equilibrium.
- 3. Since the total pressure is one atmosphere, the N_2O_4 and NO_2 are not in their standard state (one atm) and due allowance for this effect in the free energy loss must be taken into account.

The results of these calculations, shown in Appendix A, is that at 90°C and one atmosphere, the free energy loss due to dissociation of dinitrogen tetroxide is 1.72 Kcal, which is a negligible percentage (1.27%) of the 135.6 Kcal (free energy available from the hydrazine-dinitrogen tetroxide electrochemical reaction).

If spontaneous thermal decomposition of hydrazine $(N_2H_4 \rightarrow N_2 + 2H_2)$ takes place prior to the electrochemical reaction, hydrogen is then the fuel and the attainable free energy from the system:

$$2H_2 + N_2O_4 \xrightarrow{} 2NO + 2H_2O$$
 Gas

is 94.96 Kcal or 1.03 volts. This represents a loss of 0.44 volts or a 29.9% decrease in voltage from the 1.47 volts available when N_2H_4 is electrochemically decomposed to N_2 and $^4H^{\dagger}$. (see Table 5)

However, the over-all endothermic effect (including the exotherm from decomposition) is still 8.5% of the power output. The chief disadvantage of the spontaneous decomposition of hydrazine prior to electrochemical reaction is the resultant decrease in voltage and power per pound. On the plus side is the remaining endothermic effect and the fact that hydrogen is a clean fuel.

C. REFORMING

Calculation and tabulation of the thermodynamic properties permitted another set of interesting calculations. Hydrogen is a clean and easily oxidized fuel compared to other fuels. However, these "other" fuels can in theory be reformed with steam to yield hydrogen and other gaseous products. The electrochemical reaction between hydrogen and dinitrogen tetroxide or nitric acid is endothermic as shown below. However, the reforming operation of the potential fuels further augments the effect since it is endothermic itself. Calculations below show the various reforming operations in combination with the electrochemical use of hydrogen. Note that the calculations assume the use and formation of water vapor at 25°C and 1 atmosphere. This temperature was chosen since data for CH_3OH , CO_2 , and C_3H_8 are tabulated only at 25°C. However, the T Δ S for the electrochemical reaction increases

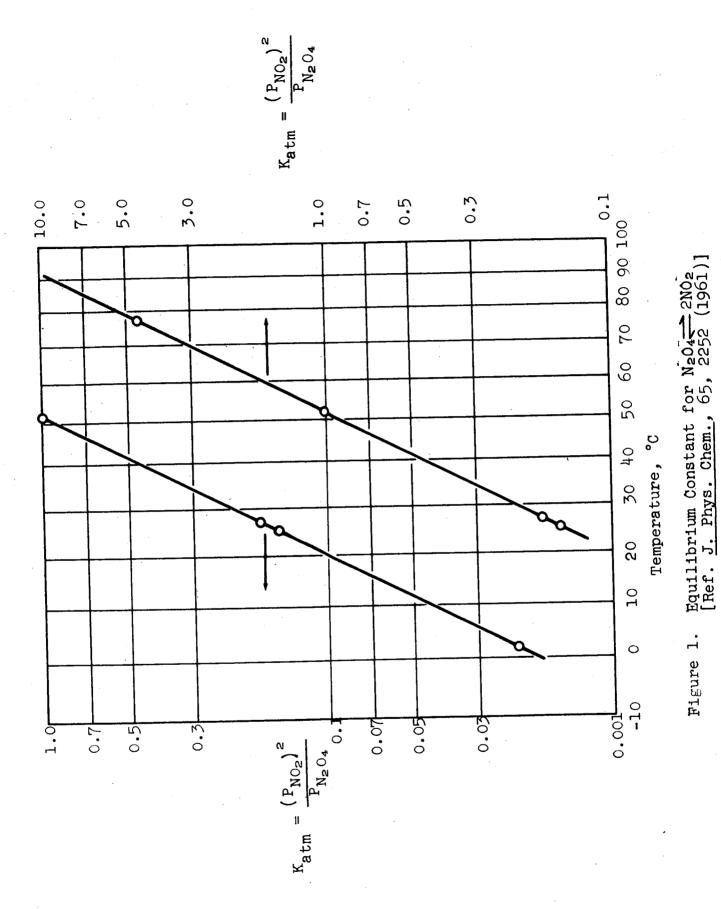


Figure 1.

with temperature, and for the reforming operation

$$\Delta H_{T} = \Delta H_{25} + \sum (C_{prod} - C_{react}) \Delta T$$

which indicates that \triangle H becomes more endothermic with increasing temperature since the heat capacity of the simple molecules resulting from the reforming is greater than for the larger molecules. Therefore, the endothermic effect would increase as the operating temperature rises above 25°C.

$$2H_2 + N_2O_4 \longrightarrow 2NO + 2H_2O gas$$

 $\Delta F = -91.33 \text{ Kcal/4 equivalents}$

 $T\Delta S = 16.62 \text{ Kcal/4 equivalents(endothermic)}$

= 18.2% of power output

 $2H_2 + O_2 \longrightarrow 2H_2O$ gas

 $\Delta F = -109.28 \text{ Kcal/4 equivalents}$

 $T\Delta S = -6.32 \text{ Kcal/4 equivalents (exothermic)}$

= -5.8%, of power output

The endothermic advantage is increased by combining the electrochemical reaction with hydrogen production by reforming various fuels:

Theoretically, at 25°C and one atmosphere

2/3 CH₃OH + 2/3 H₂O gas $\xrightarrow{\text{reform}}$ 2/3 CO₂ + 2H₂ \triangle H = 13.9 Kcal/4 equivalents Subsequently,

 $2H_2 + N_2O_4 \longrightarrow 2NO + 2H_2O$ gas $T\Delta S = 16.62$ Kcal/4 equivalents

Total endothermic effect = 30.52 Kcal/4 equivalents $\Delta F = -91.33$ Kcal/4 equivalents

••Endothermicity = 33.4% of power output

 $1/3 \text{ C}_3\text{H}_8 + 2/3 \text{ H}_2\text{O}(\text{gas}) \xrightarrow{\text{reforming}} 1/3 \text{ CO}_2 + 2\text{H}_2 \Delta \text{H} = 15.46 \text{ Kcal/4 equivalents}$ Subsequently,

 $2H_2 + N_2O_4 \rightarrow 2NO + 2H_2O$ (gas) $T\Delta S = 16.62$ Kcal/4 equivalents.

Total endothermic effect = 32.08 Kcal/4 equivalents = 35.2% of power output 2/5 CH₃NHNH₂ + 4/5 H₂O (gas) \longrightarrow 2/5 CO₂ + 2H₂ + 2/5 N₂

 $\Delta H = 3.54 \text{ Kcal/4 equivalents}$

Subsequently,

 $2H_2 + N_2O_4 \longrightarrow 2NO + 2H_2O$ (gas) $T\Delta S = 16.62$ Kcal/4 equivalents

Total endothermic effect = 20.16 Kcal/4 equivalents

= 22.1% of power output

 $1/4 (CH_3)_2N \cdot NH_2 + H_2O (gas) \longrightarrow 1/2 CO_2 + 2H_2 + 1/4 N_2 \Delta H = 7.96 Kcal/4 equivalents.$

Subsequently,

 $2H_2 + N_2O_4 \longrightarrow 2NO + 2H_2O$ (gas) $T\Delta S = 16.62$ Kcal/4 equivalents

Total endothermic effect = 24.58 Kcal/4 equivalents

= 26.9% of power output

D. USE OF FUEL CELL AS A HEAT PUMP

The endothermic property of these systems presents the intriguing possibility of their use as an electrochemical heat pump. If $\Delta F = \Delta H - T\Delta S$ is the electrical output (ΔF is negative for power output) from a fuel cell, $T\Delta S$ is the heat absorbed from the surroundings that contributes directly to the power output. Therefore, if ΔF is expended as I^2R loss through a tungsten radiator at $5000^{\circ}C$ outside the space capsule, the effect is to pump $T\Delta S$ by expending ΔF . This concept of pumping heat is not limited by Carnot efficiency or the temperatures involved, nor is there danger of losing working fluid from meteorite punctures of heat exchange tubes.

As opposed to the system described in the previous paragraph, if W is the work supplied to a conventional heat pump, the heat pumped from T_1 to T_2 is

$$Q = W \frac{T_1}{T_2 - T_1}$$

Since heat radiation depends on the fourth power of the temperature a high temperature (T₂) is required to cause a high radiant heat flux. Therefore with T₂>>T₁ the heat pump efficiency $\left(\frac{Q}{W}\right)$ approaches zero.

E. ELECTROLYTE JUNCTION POTENTIALS

Another phenomenon that will influence the full cell potential is the existence of a difference in chemical potential (such as pH) of ionic species across the separators. To illustrate the argument, consider the following half cell reactions (subscripts L and R and left and right):

$$\frac{\text{Anode}}{5N_{2}H_{4}} = 5N_{2} + 20 \text{ H}^{+}_{L} + 20\bar{e}$$

$$E_{L} = E_{L}^{\circ} \frac{-0.059}{20} \log \left[\frac{a_{N_{2}L}^{5} \cdot a_{H_{L}}^{20}}{a_{N_{2}H_{4}}^{5}} \right]$$

$$E_{R} = E_{R}^{\circ} - \frac{0.059}{20} \log \left[\frac{a_{N_{2}L}^{4} \cdot a_{H_{R}}^{20}}{a_{N_{2}}^{2} \cdot a_{H_{2}O}^{12}} \right]$$

To simplify the argument, assume reactants and products are in their standard states; i.e., $a_{\rm N_2H_4}=a_{\rm HNO_3}=a_{\rm H_{20}}=a_{\rm N_2}=1$ so,

$$E_{L} = E_{L}^{\circ} - 0.059 \log a_{H_{L}^{+}}$$
 $E_{R} = E_{R}^{\circ} - 0.059 \log a_{H_{R}^{+}}$

In addition to the above half cell potentials, a potential will exist across the separator owing to the free energy change accompanying the transport of ions from one activity to another. The reaction occurring across the separators using the same conventions as for the half cells, i.e., oxidation occurs from left to right and is spontaneous if E is positive (this is the convention of the Electrochemical Society) is:

$$t_{+}H_{L}^{+} + t_{-}NO_{3}^{-}R \longrightarrow t_{+}H_{R}^{+} + t_{-}NO_{3}^{-}L$$
 For

For 1 faraday t₊ and t₋ are transport numbers or fraction of current carried by the respective ions

$$E_{J} = -0.059 \log \left[\frac{a_{H^{+}}^{t_{+}} \cdot a_{NO_{3}_{L}}^{(1-t_{+})}}{a_{H^{+}_{L}}^{t_{+}} \cdot a_{NO_{3}_{R}^{-}}^{(1-t_{+})}} \right]$$

The full cell potential will be the difference between oxidation potentials of the left and right half cells plus the junction potential (ref. 12-A).

(ref. 12-A).
$$E = E_{L}-E_{R} + E_{J} = E_{L}-E_{R} - 0.059 \log \begin{bmatrix} a_{H}^{+} & a_{H}^{+} & a_{NO_{3}^{-}L} \\ a_{H}^{+} & a_{H}^{+} & a_{NO_{3}^{-}R} \end{bmatrix}$$

Simplifying:

$$E = E_{L}^{-} - E_{R}^{-} - 0.059 \log \left[\frac{a_{H}^{+} L \cdot a_{NO_{3}L}^{-}}{a_{H}^{+} R \cdot a_{NO_{3}R}^{-}} \right] (1-t_{+})$$
(1)

 E_L - E_R has already been calculated for the over-all reaction and is equal to 1.70 volts at 25°C and 1 atmosphere.

These calculations lead to the following conclusions:

- l. When ions on both sides of a membrane are at unit activity, or when the activities are the same on each side, $E=E_L^6-E_R^6=1.7$ volts irrespective of the value of t₊. This is true since the activity terms of Equation (1) become unity, and the log term becomes zero. If no concentration difference of current-carrying ions across the membrane exists, the liquid junction potential is still zero, since the activity ratio of Equation (1) is unity.
- 2. Even though ion activities are not unity or are not equal on each side of the membrane, the liquid junction potential will be zero if the membrane is permeable to only hydrogen ion $[(1-t_+)=0]$. This assumption is not entirely valid if cations other than hydrogen ion carry appreciable current.
- 3. If the ion exchange membrane is not sufficiently selective to cations the liquid junction potential can vary from zero to unpredictible values, either positive or negative depending on the value of t and on the activities of H and NO₃ on each side.
- 4. The above three conclusions and the liquid junction equations are valid only if H⁺ and NO₃⁻ ions are the only ions present. However, we also have a very large possibility that N₂H₅⁺ is formed and carries a large percentage of the current. If this is true the above liquid junction equation is not valid. If N₂H₅⁺ carried all the current, the following stoichiometric equation would hold:

$$N_2H_4 \longrightarrow N_2 + 4H^+ + 4e^-$$
 electrode reaction $4H^+ + 4N_2H_4 \longrightarrow 4N_2H_5^+$ chemical reaction $4N_2H_5^+L \longrightarrow 4N_2H_5^+R$ current transfer

Thus we would then get a high potential, since qualitatively it can be seen that this liquid junction would add to the potential, at the sacrifice of only 20% utilization of our fuel.

V. <u>EXPERIMENTAL-AQUEOUS</u> SYSTEMS

A. HALF CELL POLARIZATION STUDIES

The open circuit voltage (OCV), the specific energy, and the potential available at various current densities are the most important parameters of any fuel cell system. The OCV and the specific energy can be calculated from thermodynamic data if the electrochemical reactions and hence the reaction products are known. The electrode polarization under load, being a kinetic phenomenon, cannot be predicted from thermodynamic considerations, and it is therefore calculable only in very special and rigidly defined cases.

The validity of the results presented in Table 4 of the previous section is based on the assumption that only the postulated reactions take place in the cell.

The objective of the work reported in this section was to verify those assumptions, to provide guidelines from which second approximation calculations can be made, and to provide criteria for the selection of suitable oxidant-reductant couples. Most of the experimental work was performed in half cells (see Appendix A-3, Figs. A-2, A-3, A-4 and A-5).

Half-cell measurements are based on the fact that in an electrochemical cell the potential at one electrode is independent of the reaction at the opposite electrode. For example, an electrode at which the principal reaction is:

$$NO_3$$
 + $6H^+$ + $5e^-$ = $1/2N_2$ + $3H_2O$

will have the same potential whether the reaction at the opposite electrode is:

$$H_2NNH_2 = N_2 + 4H^+ + 4e^-$$

or:

$$H_2O = 1/2O_2 + 2H^+ + 2e^-$$

The potentials are recorded versus the reversible hydrogen electrode at the same temperature and pH. With this method of presentation, the full-cell potential, without IR drop, with any combination of anodic and cathodic half cells at the same pH, temperature, and current density can be found merely by subtracting the anode potential from the cathode potential. When the pH is different, an extra potential must be added for the H+ concentration cell potential as follows:

30°C: Full cell potential = E_{ox} . $-E_{fuel}$ - 0.060(pH_{ox}.-pH_{fuel})

90°C Full cell potential = E_{ox} . $-E_{fuel}$ - 0.072(pH_{ox}.-pH_{fuel})

All liquid junction potentials are assumed to be negligible. Table 6 gives the pH values for the fuel solutions studied.

1. Fuel-Electrode-Catalyst-Electrolyte Systems

a. Soluble Systems

The electrochemical oxidation of hydrazines at catalyzed electrodes was studied in various electrolytes at 30°C and 90°C. The catalysts were put on the electrode substrate using two different techniques: (1) electroplating, and (2) chemical precipitation (see Appendix A-2). When using the precipitation technique, alloys or mixtures of catalysts were tested because of reports (ref. 13) of increased catalytic activity with some alloys of Ir, Ru, Pt and Au. Precipitated catalysts necessarily used a porous carbon material* as the electrode substrate, while with electroplated catalysts, stainless steel, nickel, and graphite substrates were used.

While the actual measurements were made versus a saturated calomel electrode (SCE) maintained at the same temperature as the electrolyte, the potentials are reported versus a reversible hydrogen electrode at the pH and temperature of the particular run. The use of this voltage scale permits a comparison of the fuels in relation to the open-circuit potential of a reversible hydrogen electrode (HE). Furthermore, if the anodic oxidation of hydrazine proceeds in aqueous media by an intermediate hydrogen mechanism, the potential of HE is an upper limit of performance. It is apparent then that the best fuels have the least overvoltage.

(1) Hydrazine

Aqueous solutions of hydrazine were studied in six different electrolytes using a large number of different electroplated catalysts substrate systems (Table 7). The best short-term polarization test at 100 ma/cm² was obtained in 1M KOH at 30° with Rh/Ni electrode.

^{*}Pure Carbon Co., FC-14 grade Pure Carbon

Tahle 6

pH VALUES OF FUEL SOLUTIONS (At 30°C)

Fuel	Conc.	1M KOH	1M Buffer	1M H3PO4	5M HNO3	1M KNO3	5MH3PO4
N2H4 N2H4	1M 2M	ት ! 	8 1	8.1	o ¦	11.1	0.7
MMH	ЛМ	> 1 ⁴	8.6	4 = V=	0 *	10.75	9.0
	2.5M	7 14		+ +			
прмн	лм	1 14	6.0	w.≈	○	11.1	9.0
	2.5M		0.	ч •			
N2H4 (50/50) MMH	0.5M 0.5M		8.6	ट. १	° ≀	11.3	9.0
N2H4 (50/50) UDMH (50/50)	0.5M 0.5M	^ 1 ⁴	₦*8	4.3	0	11.9	
N2H4 UDMH	O.1M 1M	↑ 1 ¼	;	5.3	0	1	<i>:</i>
N2H4 UDMH	0.3M 1M	↑ 1 ¼	·	4.9	0	!	

Table 7 ANODIC OXIDATION OF 1M N₂H₄

			9000						
1 H3PO4	1 1 1	1 1 1	000	111.	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	1.1,1	1 1 1 p 2
[M]X	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.18	f i i	. · · ·	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	f 1 F
Volts* KOH 90°C	1 1 1	0.08	0.15	1 1 1	0.06	i i i	1 1 1	9000	111
وناسات	1 1 1	000 000 000	0.07	1	9.99 8.99	t 1 1		0.00	 90°c.
Temperature H3PO4 1N	0.19	0.12	0.12	0.46 0.85 1.2	111	į 1 i	0.08	-0.02 0.11 0.19	m 111
and 1M 1	0.20	0.18	0.15	0.49 1.3 1.3	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.02 0.27 0.29	0.30	3 - 6 - and -0.47
Same pH HNO3 90°C	0.4.0		0.34	0.56 0.78 0.81		0.54 0.73 0.80	0.57 0.79 0.88	1 1 1	0.57 0.78 0.86 30°C ar
HE at Se	00.00	1 1 1	0.37	0.083	1 1 1	0.00	0.51 0.84 0.99	· 1 1	0.63 1.04 8 at
S 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	0.23 0.42 0.54	0.17		1 1 1	0.10	1 1 1	1.1.1	0.08	111
Potential	0.17 0.36 0.45	0.15		1 1 1	0.17	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.07	, , , , , +
er 90°C	0.16 0.28 0.33	0.08	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	9660	+H+ +H+
Buffe 30°C	0.10	0.03	1 1 1	1 1 1		1 1 1		0.0704 0.0103 0.0103	N N
# &l									N2H4 -
Current Density ma/cm²	1000	100 100	1000	1000	100	1000	#\0 #\0 #\0	100	-48 8
Sub- strate	000	NI	88 88 88 88	000	NI NI	8 8 8 8 8 8	000	N1 N1 N1	SS SS SS 1(
Catalyst	Pt Pt	ች ት ት ት ት	ቸዋዊ ቲቲቲ	Au Au Au	Au Au Au	Au Au Au	Rh Rh Rh	ያት የት	Rh Rh *E° for

This system operated at a potential 0.04 volt better than a reversible $\rm H_2$ electrode at the same temperature and pH. However, it is improbable that either $\rm N_2O_4$ or $\rm HNO_3$ could be coupled with this fuel system in a full cell, thus limiting it to $\rm O_2$ or $\rm H_2O_2$ for a full cell couple.

The best system compatible with N_2O_4 and HNO_3 is H_3PO_4 at $90^{\circ}C$ using a platinum-catalyzed stainless steel (Pt/SS) electrode. A potential + 0.30 volt from HE (or poorer than reversible H_2) was obtained at 100 ma/cm^2 .

Table 8 lists the data for tests of 1M N₂H₄ in 5M H₃PO₄ and 1M KOH using precipitated catalysts and catalyst mixtures, at 30°C and 80°C.

In 1M KOH at 30°C a ruthenium catalyst performed best, but rhodium by itself was nearly as good. The best electrode was identical in potential to the best electroplated system at about the same current density.

At 80°C in 1M KOH a rhodium catalyst performed 0.02 volt worse than the Rh/Ni electroplated electrode system at 90°C. However, a precipitated ruthenium electrode performed slightly better than the electroplated Rh/Ni system.

With 5M $\rm H_3PO_4$ electrolyte at 80°C, a precipitated ruthenium electrode was only 0.18 volt poorer than HE at 100 ma/cm², this was the best precipitated catalyst. The only other catalyst within 0.1 volt at the same current was an iridium (32%)-ruthenium (68%) electrode. The ruthenium electrode shows a 0.12 volt improvement over the best electroplated system.

The main reason for the investigation of the precipitated catalyst electrode was for information on catalysts and catalyst mixtures that were difficult to obtain by electroplating techniques. Catalyst-substrate systems that would give improved long-term characteristics were desired. In the section on long-term tests, it will be seen that vast improvements were found.

(2) Monomethylhydrazine and Unsymmetrical Dimethylhydrazine

Tables 9 and 10 list data on 1M MMH and 1M UDMH in seven different electrolytes including 5M $\rm H_2SO_4$ in which $\rm N_2H_4$ is not soluble. Of the electrolytes that would be $\rm CO_2$ rejecting, MMH performs best in 5M $\rm H_3PO_4$ with a Au/SS electrode, while UDMH performs best in 5M $\rm H_2SO_4$ with a Au/SS electrode. The potentials are 0.2 to 0.3 volt worse than $\rm N_2H_4$ potentials. This, coupled with poor efficiency due to incomplete reactions ($\rm CO_2$ not produced, see analytical discussion), and very poor long-term stability (see long-term test section) indicates no further interest in the electrochemical oxidation of these fuels.

Table 7 ANODIC OXIDATION OF 1M N2H4

13PO4		1 1 1	1 1 1	90.00 00.00	1.1.1.	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	1.1.1
MC I	기		1 1 1	0.18 0.35 0.35	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1
Volts KOH	2	1 1 1	0.08	0.15 0.24 0.26	i i i	0.06	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.00	1 1 1
~[]	20 00	1 1 1	0.00	0.07 0.14 0.18	1 1 1	\$ 5 6		1 1 1	0.00	 90°C.
Temperature	500	0.19	0.12	0.12	0.46 0.85 1.2	111	1 1 1	0.02	0.02	.47 at 9
and 1M I	20.00	0.20	0.18	0.15	0.49 1.3	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.02 0.27 0.29	0.00	3 - 5 5 - and -0.2
Same pH	20.05	000	1 1 1	0.34 471 471 471	0.56 0.78 0.81	1 1 1	0.54	0.57 0.79 0.88	1 1 1	0000
HE at Se	2000	00.00	1 1 1	0.53	0.00	1 1 1	000 4.00 94.00	0.51 0.84 0.99	ì i i	0.63 0.94 1.04 8 at 3
8 0	2000	0.03 64.0 64.7 74.7	0.17	1.1.1	1 1 1	0.10 0.49 0.63	1 1 1		0.08	1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1 1
	202	0.17	0.15	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.17 0.57 0.72	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.07	1 1 1 1 +
1 6	50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 50 5	0.16	0.08	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	i i i	1 1 1	964 1000	+Hή +
J.L.	20,0	0.10	0.03	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	8000 600	N N
વ⊄	ı			•						H 4 -
Current Density	ma/cm²	1 50 100	100 100	100	1 100 100	100	1000	HC0	100	1 50 100 n: N ₂ H ₄
	strate	000	NUT	ស ស ស ស ស	000	NNN	ស ស ស ស ស ស	ooo	NNN	SS SS SS 10 SS 10 for reaction:
	Catalyst	Ptt	ት ት ት	Pt t t	Au Au	Au Au Au	Au Au Au	Rh Rh Rh	Rh Rh	Rh Rh *E° for
	OI									

This system operated at a potential 0.04 volt better than a reversible $\rm H_2$ electrode at the same temperature and pH. However, it is improbable that either $\rm N_2O_4$ or $\rm HNO_3$ could be coupled with this fuel system in a full cell, thus limiting it to $\rm O_2$ or $\rm H_2O_2$ for a full cell couple.

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Table 8

ANODIC OXIDATION OF NEH, AND MMH AT PRECIPITATED CATALYSTS

Substrate - FC-14 Porous Carbon, Electrolyte - 5M HsPO4

40.45 9.9 4.05 **+0.2**2 9.9 +0.17 60.04 8 0 0.0 -0.03 +0.41 +0.12 40.10 50.02 +0.02 -0.01 -0.01 0.0 8 IM N2H4 ID IM KOH 90.0 \$ 9.09 -0.03 10.37 9.9 -0.05 90.04 -0.05 -0.01 **4**.14 -0.0, . 8 -0.03 -0.03 9.0 -0.05 -0.03 -0.04 Potential vs HE at Same pH and Temperature, Volts 1.4 5.6 3.0 5.6 1.0 2.9 1.7 2.9 0.7 40.40 Q+ Q+ **40.38** 5.30 ÷.58 \$ \$ ±0.5‡ 40.30 ₹.4 800 40.30 +0.31 40.52 40.28 5.33 +0.22 ±0.34 50.18 5.25 100 30°C 40.23 50.30 5.21 **40.1** 4.83 40.77 \$ \$ **40.26** +0.17 40.45 4 IM N2H4 in 5M H3PO4 40.42 **40.13 40.18** ₹ 9 8.9 5.3 40.12 9 9 40.10 +0.17 \$ 0 Current in ma/cm2 40.70 +0.66 5.23 9. 9. 40.60 40.72 40.59 **to.** 51 8 40.60 9.04 +0.60 40.50 40.50 ₹.° • **+0.66** ₹. • 100 30°C 40.39 40.42 **+0.36** 40.52 40.35 **40.5** 4.59 40.22 +0.10 10.20 +0.16 40.20 +0.12 40.07 0 3.5 1.0 ٦. ټ. 9.8 9.9 3.3 2.9 5.6 5.6 2.7 60% Platinum - 20% Ruthenium - 20% Gold 40% Platinum - 40% Rhodium - 20% Gold 80% Platinum - 20% Ruthenium 32% Iridium - 68% Ruthenlum 80% Platinum - 20% Nickel Gold - 50% Ruthenlum 80% Rhodium - 20% Nickel Ruthenium Catalyst Platinum Rhod1um Iridium Nickel Gold

			M NoH.	n 1M KOF					IM MI	IM MMH in 5M HaPO,	PO.			
			* 3.08)مدد				30,05				30,08		
			Current	in ma/cm²	죝				Cur	Current in ma/cm2	a/cm²			
Catalyst	S PA	0	55	200	500	Sat.	0	20	100	200		50	8	200
Platinum	3.3	8.9	\$. %	56.38	+0.50	1.0	1 0.38	+0.73	+0.80	1 0.88	+0.27	40.68	40. 76	+0.83
Rhod1um	7.2	1 0.0	40.04	÷0.06	6.0	1.9	₩.74	40.63	69.0+	+0.7₺	+0.22	+0.43	+0.48	+0.52
Ruthenium	3.5	-0.05	0.0	+0.05	₹.6	2.2	40.38	+0.70	40.8 5	ı	+0.33	+0.41	+0.45	40.51
Gold	1.0	+0.25	40.49	+0.55	1 0.58	7.0	40.5₽	,		ı	40.45	+0.77	+0.78	+0.80
Iridium	0.8	+0.18	+0.31	+0.36	+0.41	1.2	40.04	+0.90	ı	ı	+0.23	+0.72	+0.78	+0.85
Nickel		÷0.05	+0.11	+0.15	40.20									
80% Platinum - 20% Ruthenlum	2.7	5.8	9.9	9.0	1 0.07	1.4	40.7	+0.58	+0.82	+0.80	+0.27	1 0.56	+0.63	+0.71
60% Platinum - 20% Ruthenlum - 20% Gold	2.9	90.04	\$ 9	+0.13	+6.35	ιή Ωί	+0.34	1 0.56	+0.0÷	1 0.66	1 0.28	+0.53	+0.57	£3.6
32% Iridium - 68% Ruthenium	2.6	0.0	40.03	.0 %	+0.10	, c.	+0.37	40. 65	+o.88	•	+0.2g	+0.46	+0.52	+0.50
80% Platinum - 20% Nickel	G.	+0.10	+0.15	40.20	+0.30	۲.٠	+0.35	1 .7	+0.83	+0.9₹	+0.17	1 0.68	+0.75	98. 0+
80% Rhodium - 20% Nickel	ن. ور	6.04	÷.8	+0.04	\$.6	2.0	+0.35	수 상	±0.62	+0.10	+0.2≎	₹4.0+	+0. #F	64.0+
40% Platinum - 40% Rhodium - 20% Gold	3.0	+0.07	60.0 4	+0.11	+0.17	2.0	₹.0	40.55	1 0.00	÷0.0+	40.25	7.04	40.50	+0. 5£
50% Gola - 50% Rutnenium						w,	+0.42	+0.67	40.75	+0.81	+0.29	40.42	, i	+0.51

*Tests run at 80°C instead of 90°C, due to rapid loss of fuels from vaporization.

Table 9

ANODIC OXIDATION OF IM MMH

1 O	1			1	ı	1		0.43	۲.	٢.		ı		ı	ı	1	0.29	v	9.	ı	ı	ı		ı	ı		ı	1
5M E250	1	1 1		1	ı	•	•	r	راز	96.	ı		ı	1	ι	ı	0.44	۲.		ı	ı		ı		1	ı	•	ı
04 90°C				ı	ı	ı	1	٠			•	1	ı	1.	ı	ı	ď	i	0.39	1	ı	ı	1		ı	1	ı	ı
Volts 5M HaP	۱۰	1 1		ı	1	•	ı	ı		1	ı	1		ı	1	1	ᡮ.	9	0.61	ı	•		ı	•	1	•	ı	•
		0. 0. 0.	r	₹.	0.33	0.00	o.	ı	•	1	•	•	ı	0.33	٥	٠.	•	ı	ı	ı	•	ı	0.37	•	•	ı	1	Ι,
Temperature, 1M KOH 30°C 90°C		0.48 1.13		•	0.53	96.0	•	ı	1	ı	1	,	ı	0.34	ċ	ιċ	. 1	ı	1	i	ı	ı	0.53	•	•	ι		
and PO4		0 0 0 0 0 0	•	·	0.17	0.94	•	•	0.97	1.05	•	0.65	٠.	0.16	o	۲.	ı		1		í	ı	0.14	0.85	$\dot{\omega}$	•	0.84	$\dot{\omega}$
Same pH		0. 20. 20.	•	Ŋ	•	1.88	•	0.61	1.04	•	9	0.80	∞	0.32	۲.	o.	1	ı	ı	ı	1	ı	•	1.05	•	•	96.0	•
at at		000	•	ά	,	•	ı	•	0.77	ထ	9	0.75	2	ı	ı	ı	L)	١.	0.75	9	0.76	$\tilde{\omega}$	ı	•	1	Ň	0.73	<u>.</u>
5M HNC	١.	000	•	o,			ı	ςų	0.71	ထ္	<u>.</u>	1.8	Ţ.	ı	1	4	0.62	0.98	1.07	ī,	0.73	∞	ı	١	i	ī.	0.80	ထ
otential		1 1	ì	•	→.	18.0	ص	•	•	ı	1	1	ı	0.23	۲.	۲.			0.95	ı	1	i	•	9	1.3	ı	ı	ı
PO IM KNC		1	ı	ı	ı	ı	ı	ı		1		ı	ı	1	•	1	ı	ι	ı	1	ı	1	ı	ı	•	ı	ι	ı
fer	ы.	φ. φ.	٠	•		9.84	•	ı	1	ı	ı	ı	1	W	r.	0.56	ı			ı	1	ı	7.	6	1.10	1	ı	ı
Buffe	2	49.0	7.1	1.23	0.59	8	1.23	ı	1	ı	•	ı	1	0.55	96.0	1.21	•	1		1	ı	ı	0.77	1.31	1.49	ij	•	ı
Current Density	ma/cm	۲-1 (2	100	r	ı Ç	100	-	ı Ç	100	e	201	100	Ч	50	100	r-	۲ ۱ (28	H	20	100	_	, r	100	-		100
Sub-	strate	ບເ	S	U	Ŋ	Į į	N	88	S C	SS	ני	ن د د	0	ŅŢ	N.	N T	U,	ם מ	SS	೮	Ö	E)	,	Ä	N T	S.) (C	SS
	Catalyst	Pt	ις Ct	Pt	φ	T	P.	Φ 1) 1	£.	A11	A1:	Au	Αu	A13	Au	7	7	Au	Rh	Rh	Rh	ğ	Ę	딺	r L		Rh

Table 10

ANODIC OXIDATION OF 1M UDMH

	2804 90°C	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.44 0.97 1.10	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.36 0.49 0.57	1 1 1	1 1 1	, , ,
	5M H 30°C	1 1 1		0.51		1 1 1	0.54	1 1 1	1 1 1	
	PO4 90°C	1 1 1		F F 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.36	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1
-	5M H3P	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	+ 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1
	<u>2,06</u>	1 1 1	00.0 4.0 9.0 9.0 9.0	1.05	1 1 1	000	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.49 1.07 1.12	1 1 1
170140	1 1.01	1 1 1	0.54 0.91 0.99	0.67	1 1 1	0.56	0.42 0.74 0.89	1 1 1	1.2	1 1 1
	16 HaPO4 30°C 90°C 3	0.59	0.81	011 2011	0.47 0.87 1.03	0.51	0.57	9.56	0.27	1 1 1
C Cam CE	1M H 20 C	11.0%	0.76 1.2	11.73	0.65	0.51 0.78 0.92	0.57 0.89 0.94	1.3	0.71	1 1 1
	HNO3 HNO3	0.59	1 1 1	0.58	0.54	1 1 1	0.53	0.088		
0	20°05	000 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00	1 1 1	00.0 9.09 4.09	0.61	1 1 1	0.60 0.74 0.84	0.61 0.84 1.3	1 1 1	19.61
μ		1 1 1	00.00	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.57	011 7 7 7 7	1 1 1	0.4.0 0.4.0 0.4.0	1 1 1
- C	1M KNO 20°C 9	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1
Д 4 с 4 с	er 11	0.49	0.43 0.66 0.73	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.56	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.54 0.97 1.05	1 1 1
		0.61	0.57	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.50 0.76 0.97	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.70 1.21 1.49	1 1 1
られないた	Densit:	120 100 100	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000	1000 1000	1000	1000
	Sub- strate	000	N1 N1 N1	8 8 8 8 8 8	೮೮೮	######################################	លល់ល លល់ល	υυυ	T T T Z Z Z	8 8 8 8 8 8 8 8
	Catalyst	ሁ ኮኮ ቴትት	Pt Pt	ካ ካ ካ ተ ተ ተ	Au Au Au	Au Au Au	At: At: At:	服	AR Rh Rh	Rh Rh Rh

Table 8 lists data obtained with precipitated catalyst systems for MMH in 5M H₃PO₄. Potentials about 0.1 volt better than with electroplated catalysts were obtained. Interestingly, gold was no longer effective when precipitated, and the best potentials were obtained with ruthenium and 80% rhodium-20% nickel. However, the evaluation of MMH given above for electroplated catalyst systems still would hold true.

(3) Mixtures of N2H4 with MMH or UDMH

Since the above mixtures were possible fuels for future rocket systems, they were tested with electroplated catalyst-substrate systems with most of the electrolytes previously mentioned.

Tables 11 and 12 list the data for these tests. In general the mixtures are poorer by 0.1 to 0.2 volt than the same concentration of N_2H_4 . This is compatible with the data for N_2H_4 and the methylated hydrazines—alone. Hydrazine may be preferentially oxidized and a steady state with a low N_2H_4 concentration is eventually reached, after which the potential deteriorates.

To investigate the above possibility, tests were made with 1M UDMH while the N₂H₄ concentration was varied (Table 13). For all electrodes except Rh/Ni at 90°C in 1M KOH, the potentials rapidly deteriorated with lowered N₂H₄ concentration. It would seem that Rh/Ni is such a specific catalyst for N₂H₄, that as low as 0.1M N₂H₄ can be utilized at 90°C. Thus, it might be possible to use a flow-through system that would discard the unused fuel, and thus use 90% of the N₂H₄ in the mixture. However, such an electrode would be highly inefficient, and would not be compatible with HNO₃ or N₂O₄ because of the basic electrolyte requirement.

b. Vapor Transport Electrodes

Electrodes of this type might also be classed as porous electrodes. Our porous electrodes are of the type described in Appendix A-2. The usefulness of a porous Teflon vapor electrode is thoroughly discussed in Section D. Here half-cell data from the cell pictured in Figure A-5 (Appendix A-3) is presented. Since the Luggin capillary must be too far from the electrode for IR drops to be negligible, the data obtained in Table 14 were derived from Kordesch-Marko bridge measurements. (For a description of the Kordesch-Marko bridge and its circuit, see Appendix A-3.) These tests were made in conjunction with physical optimization studies on the Teflon electrodes and will be discussed further in the Section D.

Table 41 ANODIC OXIDATION OF 50/50 0.5M N_2H_4 + 0.5M MMH

PO4	וכ	1 1 1	0.10 0.41 0.45		1 1 1	0.13	1 1 1	1 1 1	
5M Ha		171-1	000 2000 2000		1 1 1	0.00			
ts KOH OO'G		0.10 0.20 3 0.53	1 1 1	111	0.10	111	0.10	0.08	1 1 1
Vol.		-0.0 98.0 98.0	1 1 1	1 1 1	-0.01 0.88 0.91	1.1.1	-0.02 0.20 1.06	-0.02 0.12 0.18	1 1 1
Temperature, 1M HaPO4	0.62	0.11	0.88	0.47 0.82 82	000 000 000 000	0.00	0.00	0.00	
	00.1	0.14 0.70 0.90	0.31 0.84 0.95	0.60	0.23	000	0.20	0.05	1 1 1
pH and HNO3	0.00	1 1 1	0.46 0.58 0.63	0.50	1 1 1	0.52	0.58		0.56 0.70 0.78
Same 5M 30°C		1 1 1	0.46 0.61 0.66	0.70	1 1 1	0.70	0.57	1 1 1	0.43 0.75 0.85
HE at	111	0.90	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.19	1 1 1	0.16	0.18	1 1 1
1a1 vs 1M 30°C		0.13 0.99 1.3	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.32 0.77 0.87	1 1 1	0.00 0.4.00 0.4.00	0.08 0.4.0 1.2	f 1 1
Potential Fer 30°0 30°0	0.22	0.12 0.28 0.68	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.00	0.24	0.00	0.01	1 1 1
Buf 30°C		0.94	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.14	0.15	0.20 0.17 0.84	0.05	1 1 1
Current Density ma/cm	100 100	1 50 100	1001	100	1000	1 50 100	100 100	190	100 100
Sub- strate	000	NI NI NI	88 88 88 88	000	T I I	លល់ លល់ល	೮೮೮	N N N N	လ္လ လ္လ လ လ လ လ
Catalyst	ች ት ት ት	Pt Pt	5 5 5 5 5 5 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7 7	Au Au Au	Au Au	Au Au	Rh Rh	Rh Rh Rh	Rh Rh Rh

Table 12 ANODIC OXIDATION OF 50/50 0.5M UDWH + 0.5M N2H4

	200 C	1 1 1	1	0.09	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.05 0.10 0.15	1 1 1	0.08	0.07 0.11 0.15	1 1 1
Volts	20 C			186		1 1 1	-0.04 0.13	1 1 1	0.05	0.05	1 1 1
- 1	2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 2000 200	0.37		0.00	0.22 0.63 0.77	0.48	0.09	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.02	0.25 0.75 0.95
Temperature,	1M H3P04 30°C 90°C	0.37	7.	0.17 0.75 1.02	000 440 800	0.39	0.27	i, i i	1 1 1	0.06	0.46 1.2
and Te	100 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200 200	9,68	0.0	1 1 1	0000 4400	00.0	í i i	0.52	0.59 0.76 0.94	1 1 1	0.58
Same pH	20 SM	96.6	1.02		0. 4.00 7.00	0.62 0.86 0.90	1 1 1	0.60	0.39 0.87 1.13	1 1 1	0.38
at	KN03	1 1	ı	0.19 0.52 0.65	1.1.1	1 1 1	0.26	1 1 1	0.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00 1.00	0.21 0.40 0.49	1 1 1
vs HE	20°C		ı	0.13	1 1 1	1 + 1	0.24 0.88 1.05	1 1 1	0.03	0.07 0.26 0.30	1 1 1
Potent1al	90°C	0.00	0.51	0.15	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.25	0.26	0.17	0.13 0.41 0.51	1 1 1
Pot	Buffer 30°C 90°C	0.36	1.02	0.29	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.18 0.84 0.98	0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00	0.15 0.57 1.08	0.10	1 1 1
Current	Density ma/cm ²	50	100	100 100	1 50 100	100	1 100	1000	. 1991	100	100
	Sub- strate	ပပ	ပ	NNN	8 8 8 8 8 8	ပပပ	N N N I N	8 8 8 8 8 8	000	N N I N I	88 88 88 88
	Catalyst	Pt	Pt	ያ ት ተ	RE	Au Au	Au Au Au	Au Au	Rh Rh Rh	뀲格	R R R R R R R

Table 13 EFFECT OF RATIO CHANGE ON UDMH-N2H4 MIXTURES

						Poten	Potential vs HE	at	Same pH	and	mperatu	Temperature, Volts	t s			
		ą,		Ratio	10 Concer	Concentrations	ons of N2H4	N2H4	0.75W		HWGU MI		Comparison Da 50/50 Mixture	son Data Exture II	IM N2H4	
Electrolyte	Catalyst/ Substrate	Density ma/cm²	30°C	20°C	30°C	2000	30.0	200	30°C	206	20,0	2006	20.0	2,06	30°C	၁ 06
1м кон	Rh/N1		0.00	0.10	0.03	0.08			1 1 1		0.72 1.2 1.3	0.49	0.03	0.07	666 824	9000 803
1м кон	Au/Ni	150	000	0.00	0.03	0.07	1 1 1	1 1 1	1 1 1		0.56	000.00	0.05 13 13	0.00	9.00	0.06
1M H3PO4	Rh/N1	1 20	מויים ממיי	0.07	0.14	000 0004 0004	. 1 1 1		1 1 1	1 1 1	0.71	0.27 1.1 1.3	0.00	0.00	0.20	0.02
IM H3PO4	Au/N1	1 50 100	0.28	0.17	0.30 99.99	0.00 809	1 1 1		111	- 1 3 t	0.51	0.51 0.66 0.76	0.27 0.79 0.94	0.00	1 1 1	1 1 1
5M HNO3	Pt/ss	100	0.46	0.65 0.65 0.69	111	1 1 1	1.1.1	111	1 1 1	1 1 1	0.62 0.89 0.94	0.58 0.72 0.78	000 4.6.8. 7.6.8.	0.00	0.53	0.00 4.4.4 4.1.4 4.1.4
5M HNO3	Au/SS	100 100	0.60 0.72 0.89	0.56 0.61 0.70	0.00 94 98	0.57 0.75 0.79	000 0.75 0.87 7.88	0.56 0.69 0.73	0.67 0.83 0.89	0.56	0.60	0.53	0.60 0.89 0.93	0.00 6.00 6.00 6.00	0.00 0.00 0.00 0.00	0.52

Table 14 $\label{eq:ANODIC} \mbox{ANODIC STUDIES WITH POROUS TEFLON ELECTRODES}$ Pt (black) Powder Catalyst; 18 μ ; 10-15 mil Porous Teflon

Electro <u>de</u>	Am't Cat. Mg/ Cm ²		P ps1	Time min	Test at Test Elect-	60°C Test Fuel	OCV vs SHE*		at max. Current/ density vs SHE*	<u>Notes</u>	
49811	25	225	5100	15	1MH ₂ SO ₄	H ₂	+0.02	+0.06	+0.13 at 160 ma/cm ²	H ₂ not bubbling through electrode at max. current.	
					5MH3PO4	85% N2H4.H;	+0.12 20		+0.34 at 60 ma/cm ²		
49812	50	225	5100	15	1MH2SO4	H2	+0.005	+0.02	+0.13 at 280 ma/cm ²		
					5MH3PO4	85% N2H4.H	+0.16 20	*	+0.25 at 40 ma/cm ²		
49816	50	225	3200	15	1MH2SO4	H2	+0.005	+0.025	+0.07 at 200 ma/cm ²	Couldn't try higher curr- ents due to exp. diff- iculties.	
					5MH3PO4	85% N2H4.H	+0.11		+0.24 at 30 ma/cm ²	10410101	
49817	50	225	7000	15	1MH2SO4	H ₂	+0.005	5 +0.04	+0.115 at 320 ma/cm ²	:	
					5MH3PO4	85% N2H4.H	+0.15 1 ₂ 0		+0.20 at 40 ma/cm ²		

^{*} SHE = Standard hydrogen electrode

(1) Hydrazine

The feasibility of using N_2H_4 in vapor feed from concentrated N_2H_4 H_2O solutions was demonstrated; a current density of 60 ma/cm² was obtained at 60°C with platinum black powder as a catalyst. This current density is fairly close to that obtained using soluble N_2H_4 solutions in direct contact with platinum catalysts. Further improvements in the half cell might be made by using more specific catalysts such as rhodium or ruthenium and by increasing the porosity of the electrode system. The latter change will improve the hydrazine electrode by providing more rapid transport of the vapor to the catalyst surface, since the N_2H_4 vapor pressure will not be variable over too wide a range. The vapor electrode must be used at 60°C and above to provide usable vapor pressures.

(2) <u>Hydrogen</u>

Since sufficient hydrogen pressure can be maintained to provide mass transport to the electrode, the porosity of the electrode should not be critical. The hydrogen fuel data thus shows nearly opposite behavior from that of N₂H₄, improving with increased catalyst concentration and with more homogeneous construction of the electrode. Anodic currents of 300 ma/cm² were obtained at +0.12 volt vs HE at \$30°C in 1M H₂SO₄ with the best hydrogen electrode so far constructed.

2. Oxidant-Electrode-Catalyst-Electrolyte Systems

Nitric acid and dinitrogen tetroxide (N_2O_4) were the oxidants studied. HNO3 was combined with various acid electrolytes. N_2O_4 was studied as a soluble oxidant in acid electrolytes, and as a gas electrode in lM KOH, pH 6 buffer, and in a number of acid electrolytes.

a. Nitric Acid

Table 15 presents half-cell data obtained with electroplated catalyst systems for general acidic electrolytes. Table 16 presents data obtained for an intensive investigation of $\rm H_2SO_4-HNO_3$ systems, which seem to be the best overall electrolyte for $\rm HNO_3$.

Table 15 CATHODIC REDUCTION OF HNOS

			- Comment	10	Distinum (staluat	49.4	Potent18	1 V8. H	Potential vs. H.E. at Same pH and Temperature	Same DH	and Temp	erature	e *	+011	
HNOs Conc.	Elec- trolyte	Cone	Density ma/cm²	on 8.8.		on Carbon	2,06 1000	30.05 2.05	30.06	on Carbon	rbon 90°C	20°0	S. 90°C		Carbon 90°C
2.5M	HNOs	2.5M	1000	+0.41 neg neg	777 1.08		111	4.00 1.00 1.00 1.00	11.02	5.0 10.0 10.0 10.0 10.0	44.6 5.99 95.99	+0.19 +0.04 neg	5.1.0 5.90 9.90	111	444 98.93
M.C	HNOs	<u> </u>	100	777 777 777 777 777 777	11.14 11.10 11.08			157 177	11.15 11.08 11.08	11.14 10.04 10.98	444 695	444 88.13	444 485	1977 1979	11.14 1.05 1.05
TW.	H2S04	MI	1000	+0.30 neg neg	4.03 40.96 40.93	1 1 1	111	+0.33 neg neg	98. 77. 88.	111		+0.22 neg neg	45.97 45.97 45.95	+0.10 neg neg	799. 868.
MI	H ₂ SO ₄	5 M	1000	+1.07 +1.02 +0.97	# 1.06 # 1.05			444 6.93 8.93	1.12 1.07 1.06			688. 777	444 444	777 95.08	44.4 4.94 4.94
5 4	H2SO4	Wη	1000	111	1 8 1	1 1 1	1 1 1	14.1 14.1 14.1	† 68 7 7 7 7 7 7			777 777 777 777 777	7.68 7.7.7		111
H	HsP04	Т	10001	+0.29 neg neg	40.93 40.93 40.13		* + +	+0.33 neg	40.99 40.99 70.99		1 + 1	+0.18 neg neg	12.03 10.93 10.93	+0.10 neg neg	5.93 5.93 5.86
M	H _S PO ₄	M S .	50	+0.32 neg neg	7.00 7.00 7.00 7.00			+0.46 neg neg	+1.02 +0.95 +0.91	1 1 1		neg neg	1.0.0 1.0.0 1.88	7 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0 0	199. 89. 89. 89.
X.	H _S PO ₄	W.†	1 100	111	111			+0.49 +0.18 neg	+1.02 +1.02 +0.99	• • •		+0.21 neg neg	11.05 11.02 11.02		

* E° for reaction: HNO₃ + 3H[†] + 3e⁻ --- NO + 2H₂O = + 1.06 V versus HE at 30°C.

Table 16

CATHODIC REDUCTION OF HNOS IN H2SO4 ELECTROLYTE

<u> </u>							
ure, Volt	+1.11 +1.05 +1.04	+1.08 +1.03 +1.02	+1.03 +0.97 +0.95	+1.10 +1.04 +1.03	+1.10 +1.03 +1.01	+1.06	+1.06 +0.96 +0.88
Temperatur Au/SS 30°C	+1.09 +1.02 +1.00	+0.24 	40.22	+1.10 +1.05 +0.96	40.29	; ; ;	+0.34
Same pH and Temperature, Volts Rh/SS Au/SS 3°C 90°C	+1.12 +1.07 +1.06	+1.09 +1.03 +1.01	+1.06 +1.00 +0.98	+1.09 +1.04 +1.03	+1.03 +0.96 +0.94	+1.10	+1.06
at 3	+1.08 +1.03 +0.99	+0.41	+0.33	+1.09 +1.00 +0.92	40.39	1 1 1	+0.40
al vs HE	+1.10 +1.06 +1.05	+1.05 +1.01 +1.00	+1.03 +0.96 +0.93	+1.09 +1.04 +1.02	+1.05 +0.97 +0.95	+1.06	+1.06 +0.99 +0.90
Potential vs Pt/SS 30°C 90°	+1.07 +1.02 +0.97	40.49	+0.30	+1.10 +1.00 +0.94	40.49	1 1 1	+0.47
llyzed oon 90°C	ted	+1.08 +1.01 +0.99	l l l l l l l l l l l l l l l l l l l	+1.09 +1.02 +1.00	+1.01 +0.94 +0.89	+1.02	+1.07
Uncatalyzed Carbon 50°C 90°	not tested	11.0	not test	+1.04	0 1 1		1 1 1
Current Density ma/cm2	1 50 100	1 50 100	1 50 100	1 50 100	1 50 100	1 50 100	1 50 100
H2SO4 I	SM S	2.5M	1M H2SO4	5M	2.5M	2.5M	SM
HNO3 Conc.	ДЖ	JM	MI	0.5M	0.5M	0.25	O.1M

With HNO3 as electrolyte and oxidant, a high HNO3 concentration was found to be necessary for high reduction potentials. At 30°C , 5M HNO3 was required. However, at 90°C , 2.5M HNO3 gave an acceptable potential. The catalyst used made very little difference.

With $\rm H_3PO_4$ electrolyte, 1M HNO₃ was not reduced at 30°C regardless of the $\rm H_3PO_4$ concentration. At 90°C, generally only gold catalysts reduced nitric acid regardless of $\rm H_3PO_4$ concentration*. When 2M HNO₃ was used, the half-cell potentials at 30°C and 90°C were equivalent to the 2.5M HNO₃ electrolyte half-cell potentials.

When H_2SO_4 was used as electrolyte, 1M HNO₃ at 90°C in 1M H_2SO_4 gave high positive potentials vs HE. In 5M H_2SO_4 , however, the potentials were high even at 30°C. The catalyst seemed to make little difference.

The use of nitric acid and sulfuric acid mixtures was investigated to find the lowest usable $\rm HNO_3$ concentration at 30°C and 90°C in both 5M $\rm H_2SO_4$ and 2.5M $\rm H_2SO_4$. The reason for interest in this mixture is apparent from the full-cell studies, where $\rm N_2H_4$ contamination quickly deteriorated the oxidant half cell if 5M $\rm HNO_3$ solutions were used, while with 1M $\rm HNO_3$ and 5M $\rm H_2SO_4$, the $\rm N_2H_4$ precipitated as hydrazine sulfate without impairing the oxidant half-cell potential.

The following trends were noted:

- 1. At 30° C only 1M HNO_3-5M H_2SO_4 will maintain useful potentials at 100 ma/cm^2 .
- 2. In general, the best catalyst electrode combination of the four investigated for any mixture is Au on SS.
- 3. If the $\rm HNO_3$ concentration is held constant, potentials become less positive with decreasing $\rm H_2SO_4$ concentration.
- 4. With $5M H_2SO_4$ at $90^{\circ}C$ 0.2M HNO_3 is the lowest concentration that still gives useful potentials.
- 5. With 2.5M $\rm H_2SO_4$ at 90°C, a concentration of about 0.35 to 0.4M $\rm HNO_3$ is the lowest possible for useful potentials.

^{*}An exception was 5M H_3PO_4 electrolyte at $90^{\circ}C$ with rhodium catalyst.

b. Dinitrogen Tetroxide

Table 17 lists data for both aqueous and gaseous utilization of N_2O_4 .

(1) Aqueous

Dinitrogen tetroxide was utilized in aqueous solution by bubbling the gas into distilled water at 25°C. Half-cell runs were made with gold catalysts and at the H⁺ concentration found by titration of a solution sample. The blue color that appeared in solution could be made to disappear within a few hours by discontinuing N_2O_4 flow. Runs made at approximately the same H⁺ concentration when the blue color was present and absent showed that reduction was easier when the blue color was present. This was also better than HNO3 reduction at equivalent H⁺ concentration and temperatures. The blue color has been noted by others (refs. 14 and 15) and seems to be caused by a mixture of NO and NO2 in solution. Liquid N_2O_3 is blue. The potentials were generally good and the current carrying capabilities were very good.

(2) Vapor

These half cell tests were made with the porous electrode illustrated in Figure A-4, Appendix A-3. The tests were conducted with a sufficiently high pressure of N_2O_4 to prevent gross moisture from the electrolyte backing up in the electrode. The electrode was a porous carbon disk, uncatalyzed. Currents were held for five minutes with readings immediately after current was imposed, then 1, 2 and 5 minutes later. A great potential drop with time indicated electrode failure for a given current density.

(a) Acid Electrolytes

Since 5M H_3PO_4 , 1M H_3PO_4 , and 1M HNO_3 have been shown to have no oxidizing properties in themselves at 25° C, the electrochemical activity shown in Table 17 can be ascribed to N_2O_4 reduction. At 25° C both 5M H_3PO_4 and 1M HNO_3 electrolyte behaved the same for N_2O_4 reduction, holding 50 ma/cm² maximum at about +0.80 volt from HE. In 1M H_3PO_4 at 60° C better performance was found with 120 ma/cm² being maintained at +0.80 volt versus HE.

Utilizing N_2O_4 in this manner avoids the inherent waste associated with converting it to HNO_3 before use, since from:

$$N_2O_4$$
 (g) \rightarrow N_2O_4 (aq) and then
 $H_2O + N_2O_4$ (aq) \rightarrow $HNO_3 + HNO_2$
 \downarrow 1/3 $H_2O + 4/3$ $HNO_3 + 2/3$ NO

Table 17

CATHODIC REDUCTION OF N204-AQUEOUS AND GASEOUS AT 25°C AND 60°C

	Aqueous	!				Gag	Porous Ca	Gas Porous Carbon Electrode*	rode*			•		
t	Current Density	Potential****	1****	Current	25°C Pot	25°C Potential****		Current Density	WI	<u>кон</u>	S Potent DH 6 F	60°C Potential ***	1M HaPo.	
Conc.	ma/cm²	Cat. Au/C Cat. Au/SS	Cat. Au/SS	ma/cm²	5M H3PO4	IM HNO3	5M HNOs	ma/cm2	1 min	5 min	I min	5 min	1 min	5 min
1.4M	н	+0.92	•	0.C.**	+1.03	+1.01	+1.06	0.C.*	+1.74	+1.74	+1.53	+1.53	41.06	4.8
1.4周	36(max)*** +0.84	+0.8⁴	•	d	+1.03	+1.01	41.06	αı	+1.71	+1.71	+1.53	+1.52	+1.06	41.06
2.3M	1	+0.97	ı	ī	+1.01	41.00	₽.4	4	+1.70	+1.70	+1.51	+1.51	41.06	₹.5
2.3M	50	+0.83	•	10	4.9	40.98	+1.02	80	+1.67	+1.65	+1.50	+1.50	+1.02	+1.02
2.3M	100	₩9.0+	ı	30	+0.92	+0.92	+1.01	50	+1.61	+1.59	+1.45	+1.45	+0.99	+0.97
4.3M		+0.97	•	20	+0.78	+0.81	10 .98	O#	+1.56	+1.54	+1.40	+1.39	46.0 +	+0.91
4.3M	50	+0.89	•	100	6.09	10.56	+0.93	80	+1.46	+1.43	+1.31	+1.30	+0.87	+0.85
4.3M	100	+0.83						150	+1.36	+1.35	+1.22	+1.16	+0.81	₹8.0 +
6.2M	н	+1.05	±1.0₽											
6.2M	50	+1.01	+1.02											
6.2M	100	+0.984	+1.00			•								

*Source of carbon - FG-12 Disk- Pure Carbon Co.
**Open Circuit Potential - E° for reaction N₂O₄ (g) + 4e⁻ + 4H⁺-----2NO + 2H₂O = +1.03 V versus HE at 30°C and 90°C.
***Maximum current obtainable with available voltage
****Na HE at same temperature and pH

One-third of the energy possible is wasted in NO (g) evolution. However, at low temperatures $(25\,^{\circ}\text{C})$ the rate of HNO2 reaction to HNO3 and NO (g) is slow, and the HNO2 might be utilized.

(b) Basic and Buffer Electrolytes

 N_2O_4 gas in basic or neutral electrolytes offers little possibility of use as a gas electrode. This could be important since N_2H_4 performs better in basic and neutral electrolytes. Table 17 shows data for tests at 60°C in 1M KOH and in a pH 6 phosphate buffer. Currents of over 100 ma/cm^2 were maintained at very high potentials. However, the large positive potential versus HE, corrected for the pH and temperatures of the electrolyte used, indicates a local pH effect at the electrode surface, and thus eventual contamination of the electrolyte.

B. STABILITY STUDIES

1. Open-Circuit Studies

This section considers the amount of fuel lost from open-circuit decomposition at the catalyst from decomposition of the fuel. If the decomposition is very large, significant losses in coulometric efficiency could occur. Also studied is the effect of open-circuit storage on the electrochemical activity of the catalyst/substrate. These data are found in Table 18.

a. Decomposition at Electrode

(1) <u>Hydrazine</u>

5M HNO3 electrolytes were not further tested due to slow reaction with N₂H₄. N₂H₄ in 5M H₃PO₄ showed negligible decomposition at 30°C and 90°C . In 1M KOH with Pt on SS electrodes, decomposition was also negligible after 7 days of storage.

(2) Monomethylhydrazine and Unsymmetrical Dimethylhydrazine

These showed very small gas volumes from decomposition at electrode at 90°C with Au on SS electrodes in both $\rm H_3PO_4$ and $\rm HNO_3$. But, if a reaction analogous to $\rm N_2H_4$ is assumed, i.e.,

$$4H^{+} + 3CH_{3}NHNH_{2} \longrightarrow 3CH_{3}NH_{3}^{+} + N_{2} + NH_{4}^{+}$$
 and

Table 18

DECOMPOSITION OF THE FUELS AT OPEN CIRCUIT

						•								
Puel	Elec- trolyte	No. of Days Storage	Temp of Decom-	Catalyst/ Substrate	Storage Solution	Rate of Decomposition in mingas/cm²/min at 25°C	Rate in moles/cm²/ min of N2H4.Used	Assumed Decompo- sition Reaction*	which could be Supported by NeH, posed ma, cm?	Coulometric Efficiency at 100 ma/cm² Assuming Decom- position Products	•	If-Cell In Volts PH and trode I	Half-Cell Poten- tials in Volts vs H.E. at same pH and Temperature of Electrode Immediately After Decomposition Test ns/cm2	ature ely est
IM N2H4	1м кон	0404004n	<i>~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~~</i>	Au/N1 Au/N1 Au/N1 Au/N1 Au/N1 Au/N1 Au/N1	Cell soln HeO H2O H2O Cell soln Cell soln	0.0094 0.0079 0.0040 0.336 0.056	1.285x10-7 0.34x10-7 1.08x10-7 0.55x10-7 0.67x10-7 7.7x10-7	дадададад	00000044 400000044 4000000444	000000-00 00000-00 0-4000-00	000000000	44600066	6666666 99999999999	000000000000000000000000000000000000000
1M NeH4	1М К ОН	0HPOHP	8888888 8888888	Pt/SS Pt/SS Pt/SS Pt/SS Pt/SS	Cell soln Cell soln Cell soln Cell soln Cell soln	0.020 0.0059 0.0017 0.0041 0.0086	2.7x10-7 0.8x10-7 0.2x10-7 5.6x10-7 1.2x10-7 0.26x10-7	പ പപ്പ	00000 00000 00000 00000 00000 00000 0000	999999 899999 899999 89999	0000000	555555 555555 55555 5555 5555 5555 5555 5555	24,000 18 10,000	25555 5555 5555 5555 5555 5555 5555 55
IM N2H4	5M HNOs	01910911	<i>გორო</i> 0888	Pt/SS Pt/SS Pt/SS Pt/SS Pt/SS Pt/SS	Cell soln H2O Cell soln Cell soln Cell soln Cell soln Cell soln	0.00165 0.0061 0.086 0.356 0.171	2.0x10-7 only half cell 7.4x10-7 only half cell 107x10-7 440x10-7 210x10-7	run A run A A A	1.32 4.76 62.7 283 135	98 99 98.4 7.86.88 7.	2454444 24444444 2444444444444444444444	555555 5355 5355 5355 5355 5355 5355 5	00000000000000000000000000000000000000	466666 4777
HWW MI	5M HNOs	04	88	Au/SS Au/SS	Cell soln	0.070	86.4x10-7 9.4x10-7	υυ	139 15.1	41.7 86.8	6.5 5.4.0	40.53 40.49	52.0	5.59
нмай мі	5M HNO3	0.#	8.6	Au/SS Au/SS	Cell soln Cell soln	0.023	28.2x10-7 5.65x10-7	ДД	72.7	58 87.5	+0.47 +0.35	40.58 43.43	+0.62 +0.51	40.63 40.52
IM N2H4	5M H ₃ PO ₄	01-01	8888	Pt/SS Pt/SS Pt/SS	Cell soln Cell soln Cell soln	0.000 ⁴ 0.005 0.1y	0.5x10-7 ; half cell run 6.1x10-7 ; half cell run	n A A A	0.32	99.7	55.55 5.03 5.03 5.03	6.24 6.17 6.11	55.73	5.35 5.35 5.35 5.35
IM MMH		- 0 ω	06	Au/SS	Cell soln	0.012	14.7×10 ⁻⁷	ပ		81	65.0 0	40.38 40.49	+0.48 +0.55	10. 48
*	+ : ::	*	+ 111	126 924		٠								

A - H⁺ + 3N₂H₅⁺ N₂ + 4NH₄⁺ (Ref. 13)

B = $N_2H_4 \longrightarrow N_2 + 2H_2$ (Ref. 12) C - $^{4}H^{+} + ^{2}CH_3NIPNH_2 \longrightarrow N_2 + ^{2}CH_3NIH_3^{+} + ^{1}NH_4^{+}$ D - $^{4}H^{+} + ^{2}(CH_3)NNH_2 \longrightarrow N_2 + ^{2}(CH_3)NH_2^{+} + ^{1}NH_4^{+}$

^{**} Open Circuit = 0.C.

the effect on coulombic efficiency is significant. The reason for this is the large electron changes that are involved in the half cell reaction for complete utilization of the fuel, i.e., to N_2 and CO_2 . For MMH, n=10, and for UDMH, n=16. Thus, as seen in Table 17, for 5M HNO3, assuming electrode current of 100 ma/cm², and a 10 electron change, the coulombic efficiency of MMH is 42% initially, and after 4 days 87%. For UDMH, n=16 and the efficiencies are 50% initially and 87% after 4 days. When a third attempt was made to find decomposition after 7 days, the electrode catalyzed the chemical reaction with HNO3, and tests with HNO3 were stopped. Only MMH was tried in 5M H₃PO₄ and its efficiency, initially 81%, was better than in 5M HNO3.

b. Effect of Open-Circuit Storage on Electrochemical Activity

 N_2H_4 in 1M KOH showed a degradation of the electrode upon length of time stored in the cell solution (Table 18). This directly compares to decreased open circuit decomposition. After 7 days, the potential at 100 ma/cm² became poorer by 0.26 volt compared to normal activity with Pt on SS electrodes. This occurred at both 30°C and 90°C.

In $5M H_3PO_4$, after 7 days' storage, there was no significant change in electrode activity.

The activity change with time was also insignificant with MMH and UDMH in 5M H_3PO_4 and 5M HNO_3 .

2. Closed-Circuit Stability Studies (Electrochemical)

a. <u>Hydrazine</u>

(1) Electroplated Catalysts

Previous contract work on hydrazine anodes in base showed grave half-cell potential deterioration under operating conditions within 24-hour periods (ref. 16). Electroplated catalysts in this work also deteriorate badly. Figure 2 shows results over a 24-hour period for Rh/SS and Pt/SS at 30°C and 90°C in 1M KOH. The rhodium catalyst performed 0.1 volt better than platinum at both temperatures. The difference between the 30°C and 90°C tests was 0.3 volt, with the 90°C test performing best. Even at 90°C with Rh/SS, the half-cell potential after 24 hours was +0.4 volt from reversible HE performance. This value is not good enough for a useful full cell. When polarization of the oxidant electrode and IR drop are included a full cell potential of 0.5 volt would probably be the best possible at 100 ma/cm².

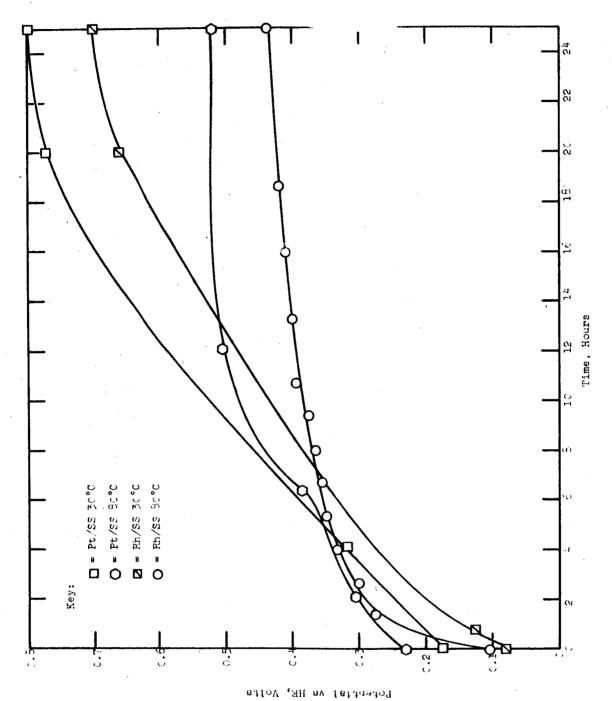


Figure 2. Chronopotentiometric Plot Half-Cell Potential for Electro-oxidation of IM NeH, in 1 M KOH using Electroplated Catalysts

Current Density = 100 ma/cm2

46

No previous long-term use of N_2H_4 in acidic solutions was found. Figure 3 shows long-term tests with Pt/SS electrodes in 5M H_3PO_4 at 90°C at 100 ma/cm². At 90°C the initial potential was +0.24 from HE, and over a period of 3 hours the potential deteriorated to +0.4 volt versus HE and then very slowly polarized until it reached +0.46 volt versus HE after 24 hours. Once again the potentials reached after 24 hours are not useful for full cell work.

(2) Precipitated Catalysts

The failure of electroplated catalysts led to the testing of the precipitated catalysts. Those catalysts that showed good half-cell short-term polarization tests were put on long-term test for further tests at $100~\text{ma/cm}^2$.

Figure 4 shows tests made with 1M N_2H_4 in 1M KOH at 30°C with rhodium, ruthenium, and iridium (32%)-ruthenium (68%). At the end of 145 hours the rhodium and ruthenium were at potentials of +0.19 volt and +0.26 volt from HE respectively, which is a significant improvement over the electroplated catalysts. Shortly thereafter both electrodes deteriorated rapidly. However, even these were poor compared to the iridium-ruthenium mixture, which ran for 700 hours at which time its potential was only +0.17 volt versus HE. The reason for this spectacular long-term run is not known; it must be reproduced to be sure the catalyst itself was responsible.

Figure 5 shows tests made using 1M N_2H_4 in 1M KOH at 80°C. Catalysts of rhodium, ruthenium, platinum (80%)-ruthenium (20%) and iridium (32%)-ruthenium (68%) all showed a quick initial drop to +0.20 to +0.26 volt versus HE, where they leveled off somewhat and then rapidly deteriorated. The rhodium potential fell off after 96 hours, Pt-Ru and Ru after 150 hours, and Ir-Ru lasted 300 hours before +0.3 volt versus HE was reached. In one test ruthenium performed better than the other catalysts, but it was found that the KOH concentration had accidentally increased to 4M and N_2H_4 to 3M. These should be studied further.

Tests in 5M $\rm H_3PO_4$ with $\rm N_2H_4$ were only done at 80°C, because of poor potentials at 30°C and also because the resistivity of 5M $\rm H_3PO_4$ was too high at 30°C (~5 ohm.-cm.) for practical use in a full cell. At 80°C the resistivity drops to ~3.0 ohm.-cm.

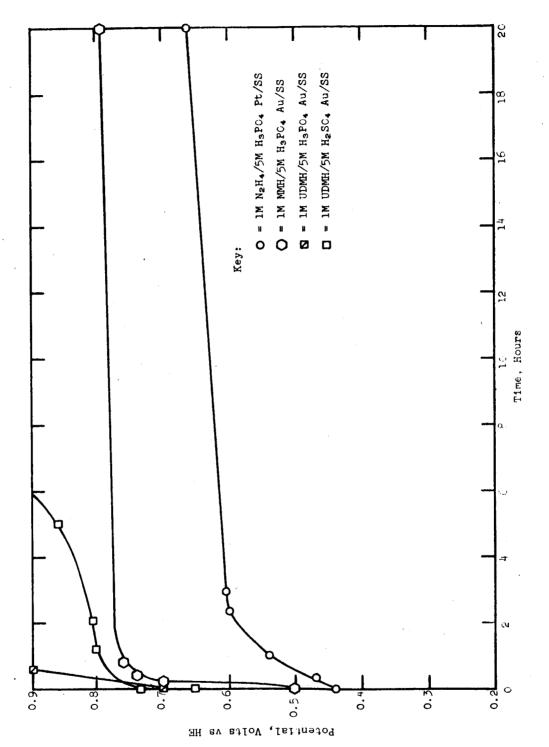


Figure 3. Chronoporentiometric Plot Electro-oxidation of Hydrazine-type Fuels at: Electroplated Catalysts I = 100 ma/cm²

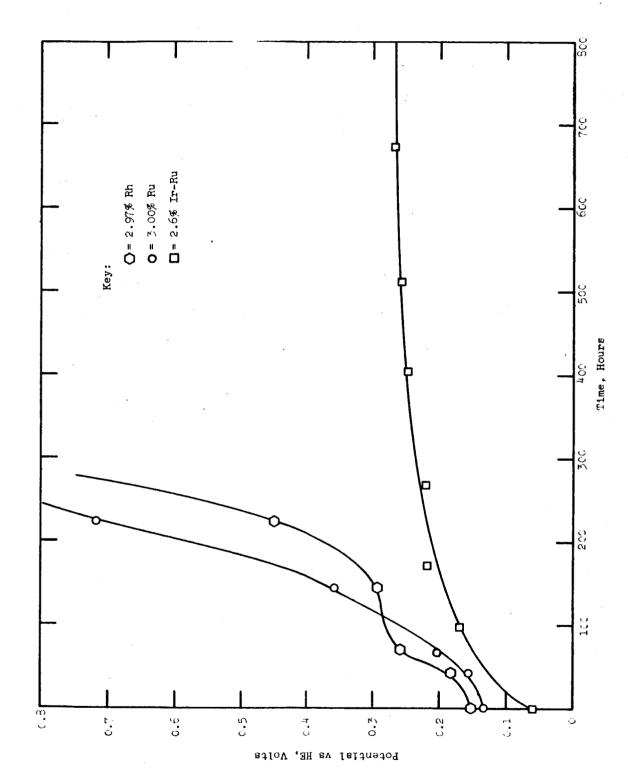
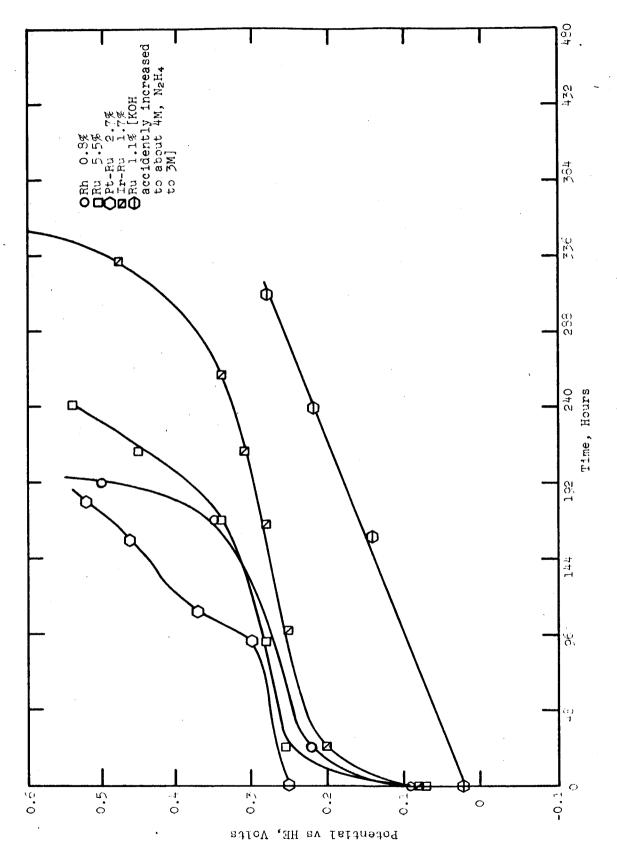


Figure 4. Chronopotentiometric Plot Electro-oxidation of 1 M N₂H₄ in 1 M KOH at 50° C using Precipitated Catalysts I = 100 ma/cm²



Chronopotentiometric Plot Anodic Oxidation of 1 M $_{\rm NzH_4}$ in 1M KOH at 8C°C using Precipitated Catalysts Figure 5.

I = 100 ma/cm²

Figure 6 shows data for 1M N2H4 in 5M H3PO4 at 80°C. All catalysts except ruthenium fell to +0.48 volt versus HE within 20 to 200 hours depending on specific catalysts. Ruthenium on the other hand levels off at 0.25 volt and after 600 hours only polarized by another +0.05 volts. However, this curve is not smooth, as shown in Figure 6. The actual behavior consisted of large voltage fluctuations shown in Figure 7. The sudden drop in voltage occurred when fuel was added to bring the solution back to 1M concentration. The values plotted on Figure 6 are taken 10 hours after addition of fuel. fluctuation does not seem to be caused by the lowering of fuel concentration, which drops to only 0.8 M at the time of fuel addition. This does not seem to be an effect of stirring either, for the length of time required for the potential to deteriorate to the same value in successive fluctuations is about 50 hours. With catalysts other than ruthenium this fluctuation did not occur, as shown in Figure 7 for rhodium.

To find more information about this effect, another ruthenium electrode was tested using 2M N_2H_4 . The results of this test are also shown in Figure 7. The fluctuations still occur, but with much smaller amplitudes. A plot of potentials 10 hours after fuel addition did not differ significantly from 1M N_2H_4 plots. The reason for this behavior is not known, but might have a fundamental relation to the long-term deterioration of all electrodes in N_2H_4 solutions. Contaminants apparently build up at the electrode in different amounts depending on the catalyst. With ruthenium, this build-up might be very slow; thus, stirring tended to transport it from the surface of the electrode. With 2M N_2H_4 even less build-up seemed to occur. Figure 8 shows tests with a number of catalysts using 2M N_2H_4 . There was a significant improvement with rhodium, Ir-Ru, and Pt-Rh-Au using 2M N_2H_4 .

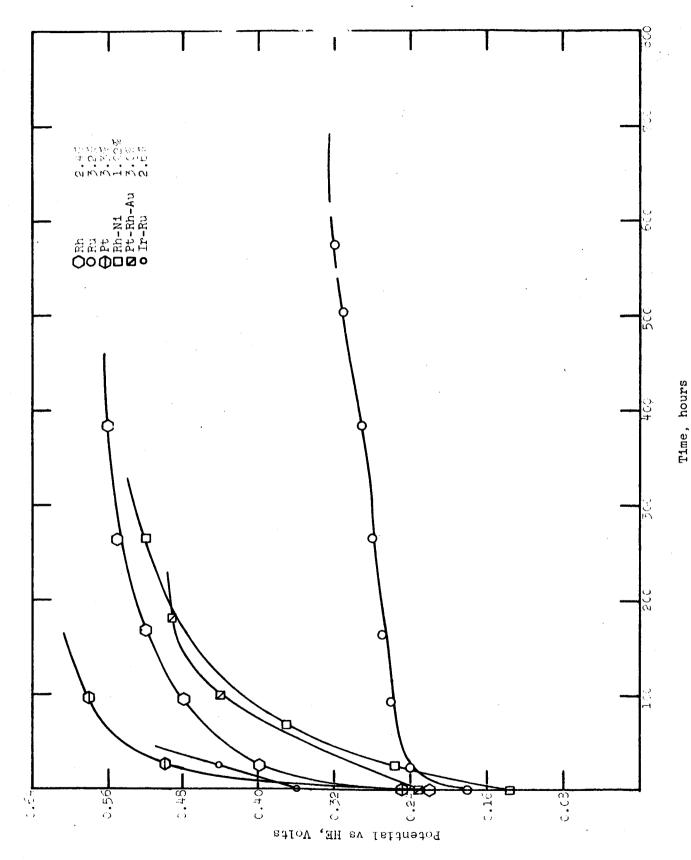
b. Monomethylhydrazine

(1) Electroplated Catalysts

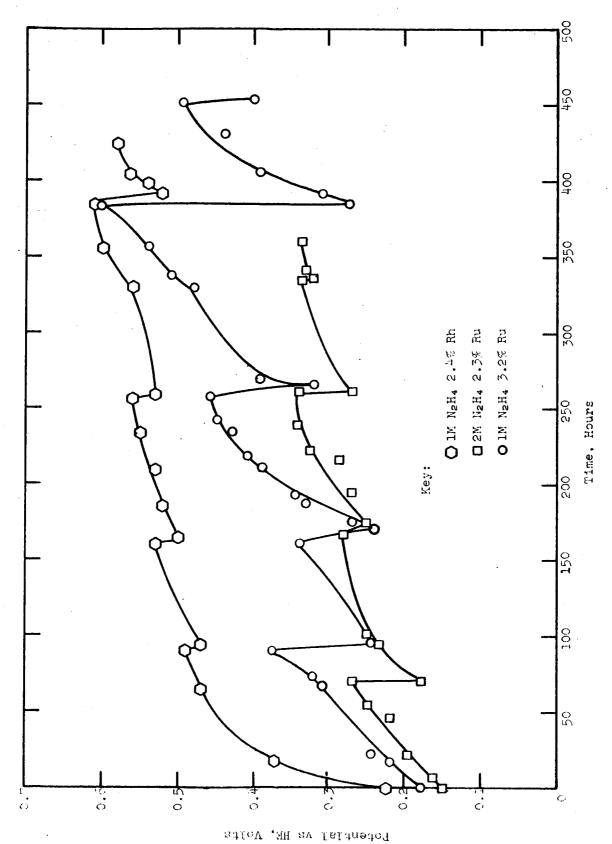
Figure 3 shows data for 1M MMH in 5M $\rm H_3PO_4$ at 80°C using a Au/SS electrode. The potential rapidly deteriorated from the initial value of +0.30 volt versus HE to +0.60 volt versus HE where it leveled off and remained fairly constant until the end of 24 hours. The potential deteriorated rapidly after 45 hours.

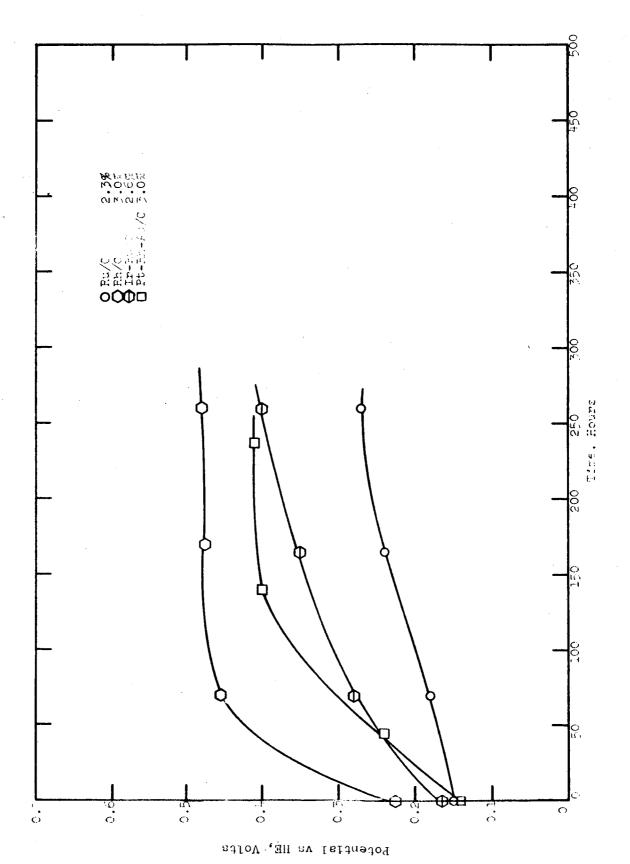
(2) Precipitated Catalysts

Figure 9 shows tests made with 1M MMH in 5M $_{\rm H_3PO_4}$ at $_{\rm 80^{\circ}C}$ with precipitated catalysts. Rhodium and ruthenium catalysts deteriorated badly within 24 hours. Rh (80%) - Ni (20%)



Chronopotentiometric Plot Anodic Oxidation of 1 M NzH4 in 5 M HsPO4 at 80° C using Precipitated Catalysts. I = 100 ma/cm² Figure 6.





Chronopotentiometric Plot Anodic Oxidation of 2 M N₂H₄ in 5 M H₃PO₄ at 80°C using Precipitated Catalysts Figure 8.

= 100 ma/cm²

54

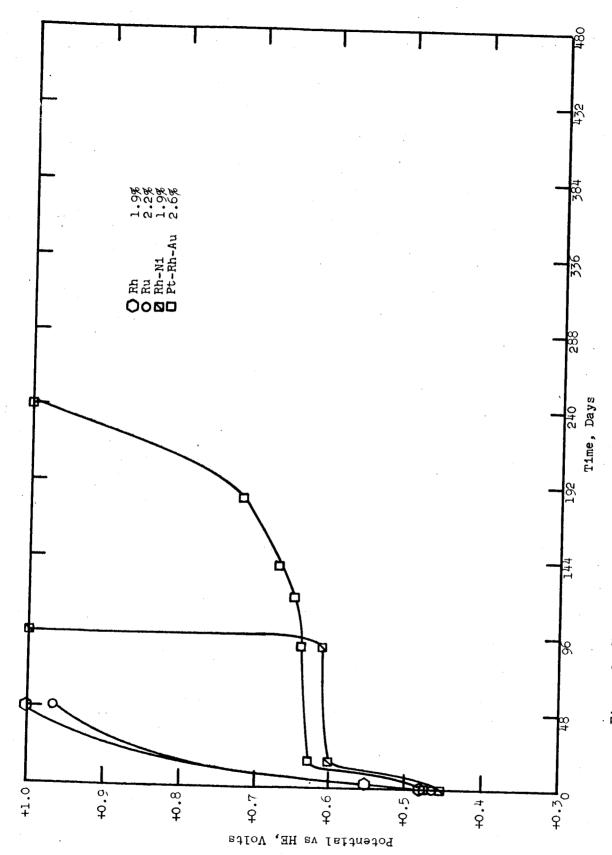


Figure 9. Chronopotentiometric Plot Anodic Oxidation of 1 M MMH in 5 M H₃PO₄ at 80°C using Precipitated Catalysts

I = 100 ma/cm2

maintained a potential of +0.60 volt versus HE for 90 hours and then rapidly deteriorated. The best catalyst was Pt (60%)-Ru (20%)-Au (20%) which maintained potentials between +0.60 to +0.70 versus HE for 180 hours. However, at a potential of +0.60 volt from HE there would not seem to be any practical use for MMH in a full cell.

c. Unsymmetrical Dimethylhydrazine

Figure 3 shows data for 1M UDMH in 5M $\rm H_3PO_4$ and 5M $\rm H_2SO_4$ at 80°C. The 5M $\rm H_2SO_4$ electrolyte gave better long-term performance. However, the polarization was too severe for a useful anode.

d. Nitric Acid

Figure 10 shows long-term data for 5M HNO₃ oxidant solution using a Au/SS electrode at 30°C. There was almost no change in potential after 40 days, operation. The potential of +0.99 volt versus HE is very good, since, coupled with a fuel electrode at +0.15 versus HE, the full-cell voltage without IR drop would be +0.80 volt.

C. ANALYTICAL STUDIES - REACTION PRODUCTS

The experimental procedure and apparatus used for the analytical runs are outlined in Appendix A-3, Figures A-8 and A-9. Analytical data are summarized in Table 19.

1. <u>Hydrazine</u>

In general, the only electrochemical reaction expected of N_2H_4 is:

- (1) N_2H_4 (aq) \longrightarrow $N_2 + 4H^+ + 4e^-$ in base, and
- (2) $N_2H_5^+ \longrightarrow N_2 + 5H^+ + 4e^-$ in acid.

For both these reactions, the volume of gas produced per ampere-hour is equal to

$$Vliters = \frac{NRT}{P}$$

where N = mole N₂H₄ used = $\frac{I\Delta t}{nF}$. Thus, $I\Delta t$ = 3600 coulombs per

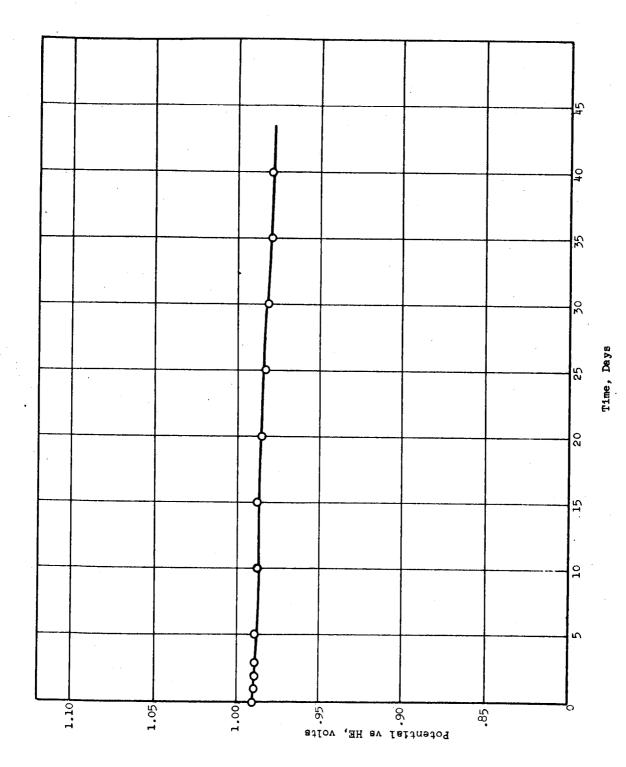


Figure 10. Chronopotentiometric Plot Electro-oxidation of 5 M HNOs with Au/SS Electrode Current Density, 100 ma/cm²

Temperature, 30°C

57

Table 19

EXPERIMENTAL DATA OBTAINED IN MECHANISM STUDIES

	Notes			Found 0.6M CH ₃ OH in solution, theory product 0.75M	Would not perform long enough time for accurate gas measurement	Yellow color formed, no gas evolution initially	Faint bluish color in solution	Faint bluish color in solution	Brown gas N ₂ O4 at first, changing to NO	
	De.		m	9	r	#	m	ĸ	•	•
	Theory for Ae		0	0.69M/L	0.48M/L	0.51M/L	2.30M/L	1.95M/L	1	1
a t	liter or <u>de</u>		4	≠	#	W	≠	#		
Fuel or Oxidant Concentrations	at End, moles/liter Expt'l. Theory for de		0.25	77.0	ψ9·0	94.0	3.00	2.68		ı
Fue 1 Conc	at En		0.23	0.52	0.62	0.35	2.48	2.37	ı	•
	VPC Analysis	100% N2	100% N2	100% N2	100% N2	100% N2	on 3666	96% NO 4% N2		on %66
t ss	ml/amp-hr Expt'l. Theory Reaction*	(1)	(5)	(3)	•	Đ Đ	(16)			(16)
Gas Volume Measurements	ml/amp-hr Theory	227	227	227		None at flrst, slowly increased	304	ı	1	304
Ger	Expt'1.	223	222	222		None at	258	•		275
Current	Temp. Density	100	100	100	50	. 20	100	50	100	100
ttons	•	R	9	9	9	96	8	8	9	8
ting Cond	Catalyst	Au/N1	Pt/SS	A u/SS	Au/C	Au/c	Au/c	Au/c	Au/c	Au/c
Half Cell Operating Conditions	Fuel or Oxident Electrolyte Catalyst	1M KOH	5M HSPO4		5m H _s PO ₄	5M H₂SO.	ı		. 1	IM HNO3 5M H2SO4
Ha	Fuel or Oxident	1N N2H4	1M N2H4	MW ML	HWCO WI	IM UDMH	5M HNOs	4M HNOs	SON MC	1M HNO3

*Reaction listed in text

amp-hr, n = 4 eq/mole, and F = 96,500 coul/eq. At atmospheric pressure and 25°C (298°K), the volume expected is 227 ml/amp-hr. The only possibility of lowering the coulombic efficiency would be the electrode decomposition reaction of N_2H_4 or $N_2H_5^+$; the products of this decomposition would add to the calculated volume. The quantity and nature of the gas products from the oxidation of $lM N_2H_4$ in $5M H_3PO_4$ strongly indicated complete formation of N_2 . The data in Table 19 substantiate this indication. The concentration found by titration with KIO₃ at the end of the test agrees within experimental accuracy with that expected from the number of coulombs passed. If a three-electron change had occurred, the cell would have used up all the N_2H_4 solution.

The gas volume and VPC^* data for 1M N_2H_4 in 1M KOH also shows complete oxidation to N_2 .

2. Monomethylhydrazine

The following electrode reactions are possible with MMH in acid electrolyte. At the right is listed the gas volume (ml) expected at 25°C per amp-hr.

(3)	$H_2O + CH_3NHNH_2 \longrightarrow CH_3OH + N_2 + 4H^+ + 4e^-$	227
(4)	$H_2O + CH_3NHNH_2 \longrightarrow CH_2O + N_2 + 6H^+ + 6e^-$	151.5
(5)	$2H_2O + CH_3NHNH_2 \longrightarrow HCOOH + N_2 + 8H^+ + 8e^-$	113.5

Gas Evolution ml/amp-hr. at 25°C and 1 atm

The data from Table 19 indicate that reactions 3, 4, and 5 might be occurring, but 3 is predominant. Gas volumes measured are very close to those expected from reaction 3. However, solution analysis for MMH and the concentration of CH_3OH found by VPC indicate slightly better than a four-electron change. No CO_2 was found, thus eliminating reaction 6.

(6) $2H_2O + CH_3NHNH_2 \longrightarrow CO_2 + N_2 + 10H^+ + 10e^-$

^{*}Vapor Phase Chromatography (VPC)

3. Unsymmetrical Dimethylhydrazine

The most probable reactions of UDMH electrochemically are listed below:

		Gas Evolution in ml/amp-hr at 25°C
(7)	$2H_2O + (CH_3)_2NNH_2 \rightarrow 2CH_3OH + N_2 + 4H^+ + 4e^-$	227
(8)	$2H_2O + (CH_3)_2NNH_2 \rightarrow 2CH_2O + N_2 + 8H^+ + 8e^-$	113.5
(9)	$4H_{2}O + (CH_{3})_{2}NNH_{2} \rightarrow 2HCOOH + N_{2} + 12H^{+} + 12e^{-}$	76
(10)	$4H_2O + (CH_3)_2NNH_2 \rightarrow 2CO_2 + N_2 + 16H^+ + 16e^-$	171
(11)	$H_2O + (CH_3)_2NNH_2 \longrightarrow (CH_3)_2N-N=O + 4H^+ + 4e^-$	0
(12)	$(CH_3)_2NNH_2 \longrightarrow 1/2 (CH_3)_2NN=NN(CH_3)_2 + 2H^+ + 2e^-$	0
(13)	$(CH_3)_2NNH_2 + H_2O \longrightarrow (CH_3)_2NHOH^+ + 2H^+ + \frac{1}{2}N_2 + 30$	e ⁻ 151

a. 5M H₃PO₄ Electrolyte

Analysis of product gas showed only N_2 . Analysis for UDMH after test showed the concentration expected for a four-electron change. The fuel would not run for a long enough time for accurate measurements of gas volumes, nor for enough CH_3OH , if produced, to be found by vapor phase chromatographic examination. Reaction 7 is most probable. The system showed insufficient promise to warrant testing further.

b. 5M H₂SO₄

UDMH supported better potentials in sulfuric acid than in phosphoric acid electrolyte. However, a number of different reactions seemed to occur as the potential changed with time. At the best potentials (when first started) no gas was evolved, but a yellow color was produced in the cell at the electrode. Then gas evolution slowly increased as the potential deteriorated.

^{*}Table 19

Reactions 11 or 12 could account for the lack of a product gas. The product of reaction 11, yellow dimethylnitrosamine, can be formed by the reactions of a secondary amine with HNO3 (ref. 17). The product of reaction 12 is a tetrazene. The titration of UDMH with KIO3 results in a quantitative two-electron reaction (ref. 18). Also, the oxidation of unsymmetrical diphenylhydrazine with HgO results in the corresponding tetrazene (ref. 19). It is not known if the dimethyltetrazene product has a yellow color.

Analysis of the solution after the termination of the test indicated less than a three-electron change. Thus, the most likely pair of reactions would be 7 and 12. Reaction 7 would account for N_2 gas evolved as potential deteriorated.

4. Nitric Acid

The following are the most probable electrochemical reactions of HNO3:

		Theoretical Gas Evolution ml/amp-hr
(14)	$H^+ + le^- + HNO_3 \longrightarrow NO_2 + H_2O$	Gas soluble
(15)	$2e^- + 2H^+ + HNO_3 \rightarrow HNO_2 + H_2O$	0
(16)	$3e^{-} + 3H^{+} + HNO_{3} \rightarrow NO + 2H_{2}O$	304
(17)	$4e^- + 4H^+ + HNO_3 \rightarrow 1/2 N_2O + 5/2 H_2O$	113.5
(18)	$5e^- + 5H^+ + HNO_3 \rightarrow 1/2 N_2 + 3H_2O$	91

Unless reaction 18 predominates, gas volume measurements are not very accurate because of at least partial solubility of NO₂, NO, and N₂O. NO can be found along with N₂O and N₂ by VPC studies, if it is present in product gas. If a combination of reactions are occurring, NO₃ analysis of the solution offers the most accurate information.

For HNO3 as both oxidant and electrolyte, and with $\rm H_2SO_4$ electrolytes, the predominant product seems to be NO. In 5M HNO3, NO3 concentrations indicate about a 3.2-electron change. About 4% N2 is found in product gas with 4M HNO3, while NO3 tests show about 3.5-electron change. At high temperatures NO2 is initially produced, but when saturated, the reaction shifts to NO (Table 19).

D. FULL-CELL STUDIES

1. Soluble N₂H₄-HNO₃ Cell

The work on complete cells was started by building a hydrazine/nitric acid cell and a hydrazine/din trogen tetroxide cell.

Figure 11 shows the hydrazine/nitric acid cell. The anolyte was an aqueous solution of 1M N_2H_4 and 5M H_3PO_4 . The catholyte was 4M HNO_3 . An anion ion-exchange membrane prevented gross mixing of the reactants.

A Au on stainless steel mesh cathode and a Pt on stainless steel mesh anode, both 1 cm2 in geometrical area, were fabricated. The cell was made of Lucite and contained about 15 ml in each compartment. This simple arrangement showed feasibility from the standpoint of open-cell voltage and electrode polarization characteristics.

The open-circuit voltages for three different runs were 0.88 volt, 0.90 volt and 0.91 volt, in good agreement with the half cell results.

The total polarization, determined with a Kordesch-Marko (KM) bridge at 100 ma/cm², was 0.4 volt from open circuit, also in good agreement with the half cell data.

Next, a $\rm HNO_3-N_2H_4$ system was tried using a porous carbon cathode against a cation exchange membrane. Against the other side of the cation exchange membrane was a Pt-on-SS mesh anode.

In Table 20 the data for the cell are shown. The individual electrode potentials were also measured (IR free) along with the full cell voltage with and without IR drop. The cell ran for two hours at currents from 20 ma to 90 ma. However, the cell potential fell off because of failure of the HNO3 compartment, presumably because of filling of the carbon electrode with product gas. Full-cell potentials at 40 to 80 ma were very low because of poor cathode performance.

^{*}Where IR-free measurements were desired, the cell was driven and potential measurements were made by a Kordesch-Marko bridge, otherwise cells were discharged through a variable resistance at constant current.

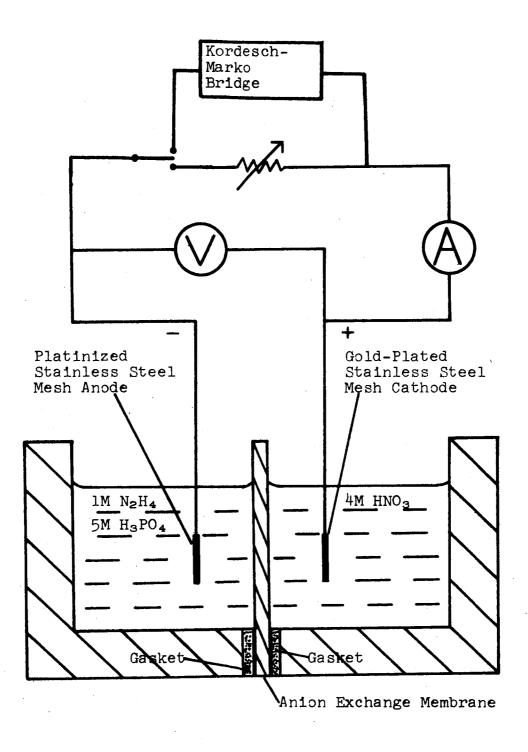


Figure 11. N2H4 - HNO3 Fuel Cell, Soluble Reactants

Table 20

HNO3 - N2H4 FULL CELL

Oxidant - 5M HNO₃; electrode, porous carbon FC-13, 2.5 cm² area Fuel - 1M N₂H₄ in 5M H₃PO₄. Electrode, Pt/SS 100 mesh,1.8 cm² area Separator - Ionic's Cation exchange membrane - 61AZL-183 Temperature- 40°C.

Time,	Total Current, ma		ull cell ge, volts Without IR*	Anode* vs HE, volts	Cathode* vs HE, volts
0	0.C.	+0.84	+0.84	+0.20	+1.04
12	20	+0.57	+0.64	+0.35	+0.97
34	40	+0.31	+0.45	+0.44	+0.89
50	80	0	+0.21	+0.46	+0.67
70	92	-0.29	+0.02	+0.48	+0.50
126	60	-0.08	+0.16	+0.50	+0.66

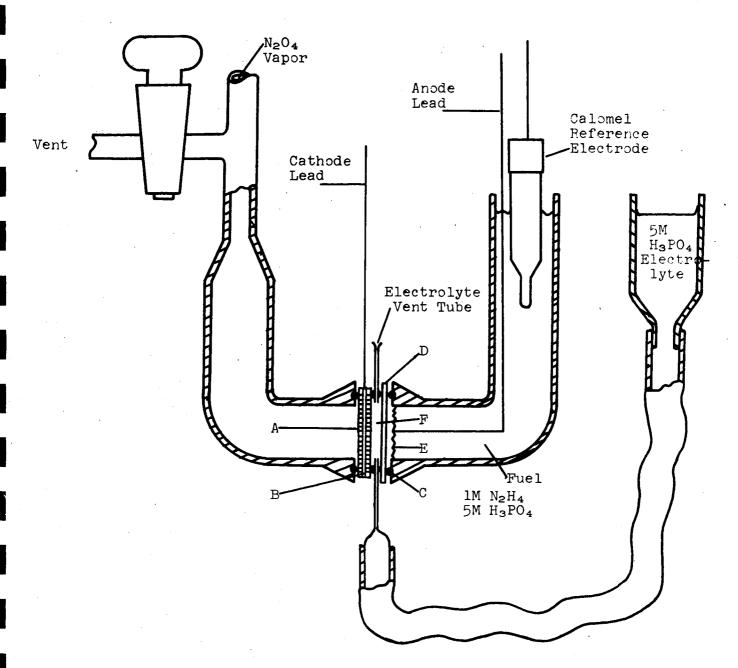
Discontinued because of poor cathode potential.

Cells were also run using a porous carbon flow-through electrode with 5M $\rm HNO_3$. With this system, the $\rm HNO_3$ electrode maintained a potential of +1.00 volt vs $\rm HE$ even at high current densities. The IR drop was higher because there was another compartment between the carbon electrode and the ion exchange membrane.

2. Soluble N2H4 - Vapor N2O4 Full Cell

Figure 12 shows the hydrazine- N_2O_4 cell. The cathode was a porous carbon disk (Pure Carbon FC-13) with a tantalum lead. The anode was a disk of 100-mesh stainless steel plated with platinum. Geometrical areas were 2.54 and 1.8 cm², respectively. The fuel was a lM solution of N_2H_4 in 5M H_3PO_4 . Separating the fuel and 5M H_3PO_4 electrolyte compartments was a cation exchange membrane (Ionics, Inc.). Viton rubber 0-rings were used to seal the cell compartments.

^{*}IR Free, and anode and cathode potentials measured with Kordesch-Marko Bridge.



- A Porous Carbon Cathode
- D Cation Exchange Membrane
- B Tantalum Lead Ribbon
- E Platinized SS Mesh Anode
- C Viton Rubber O-Ring
 - F Electrolyte Chamber

Figure 12. N₂H₄ - N₂O₄ Full Cell

Open-circuit voltages were 0.75 volt with this cell. At current densities of 30 ma/cm² (based on anode area), IR drop was about 0.25 volt when a small flow of electrolyte was maintained. With the electrolyte flow maintained, the cell was operated as described above for a period of 50 minutes without substantial change.

Results for a similar cell are shown in Table 21. Individual half-cell potentials were not measured. The open-circuit voltage is approximately that predicted from half-cell tests with acidic electrolytes. Values of full cell potential were measured with and without a Kordesch-Marko bridge, which eliminates IR drop. The difference between the two indicates the IR drop. The cell was run for 1/2 hour at 50 ma total current until potential collapsed. The full cell potential from the bridge dropped from +0.67 to +0.61 volt in that period, while the full cell potential including IR drop increased from +0.25 to +0.32 volt, indicating a decrease in cell resistance.

Table 21

N₂O₄ - N₂H₄ FULL CELL

Oxidant - N_2O_4 gas electrode, FC-13 porous carbon electrode, 2.5 cm²

Fuel - $1M N_2H_4$ electrode, 1.5 cm² Pt/SS 100 mesh

Electrolyte - 5M H₃PO₄ for both fuel and oxidant Separator - Ionic's Cation Exchange membrane

Temperature - 30°C

		Cell volt	age, volts
Time, min	Total Current, ma	With IR	IR Free
0	O.C.	+0.83	+0.83
2	2	+0.80	+0.80
74	10	+0.69	+0.76
6	20	+0.57	+0.72
8	50	+0.25	+0.67
20	50	+0.26	+0.59
50	50	+0.32	+0.61

Voltage deteriorated after 50 min.

A number of variations using N_2O_4 gas electrode without a large liquid compartment were tried. In once instance, the porous carbon was placed against the ion exchange membrane. Open-circuit voltages were about the same as with the cell described above, but the electrode polarized with very small currents, because of lack of a gas-electrolyte interface. In another variation, asbestos was put between the porous carbon electrode and the ion exchange membrane and was continually soaked with electrolyte. This performed better initially; however, gas products eventually built up and the cell polarized badly.

A $N_2O_4-N_2H_4$ cell was set up using 1M KOH electrolyte. Open-circuit voltage was +1.8 volts, which was expected from half-cell runs. The data are shown in Table 22. Because of gross leakages, pressure was not maintained on the cathode as in the half-cell runs, and the electrode did not perform in the same manner.

Table 22

N2O4 - N2H4 FULL CELL

Oxidant - N_2O_4 gas, porous carbon FC-14 electrode, 2.5 cm² Fuel - 1M N_2H_4 , Pt/Ni porous electrode 2.5 cm² area Electrolyte- 1M KOH for both fuel and oxidant with separator Separator - Ionics, Inc. Cation exchange membrane Temperature- 25° C

		<u> </u>	Voltage	, volts	
Time, min	Total Current, ma	Full Cell With IR	IR Free*	Anode* vs HE	Cathode* vs HE
0 8 19 25 4 60	0.0. 10 20 50 50 20 30	+1.86 +1.78 +1.65 +1.36 +1.11 +1.43 +0.68	+1.86 +1.85 +1.80 +1.70 +1.56 +1.57 +0.90	+0.02 +0.03 +0.03 +0.04 +0.04 +0.04 +0.06	+1.88 +1.86 +1.82 +1.73 +1.53 +1.60 +0.96

^{*}Values measured with Kordesch-Marko Bridge.

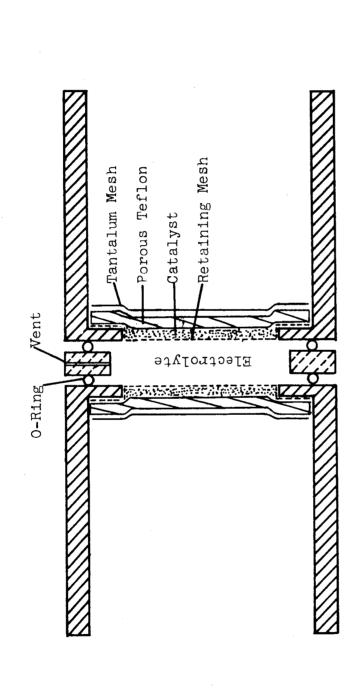
This initial attempt at full cells drew attention to the main construction requirements that must simultaneously be satisfied:

- (1) Provide and maintain three-phase contact with the catalyst surface.
- (2) Provide a means of escape for the reaction products from the catalyst surface.
- (3) Maintain sufficient but not excessive feed of reactants to the catalyzed electrode.

3. Porous Teflon Vapor Electrode Full Cells with Electrolyte

At this point a new concept in electrode construction offered, in theory, a solution to the problem areas outlined above. This electrode is termed the "porous Teflon vapor diffusion electrode." This electrode, schematically depicted in Figure 13 as it appeared in the initial full-cell trials, consisted of porous Teflon, one side impregnated with catalyst, pressed against a perforated stainless steel plate acting as current collector, physical support, and means of preventing the catalyst from being abraded. In theory the Teflon serves as a barrier to nonwetting liquids such as hydrazine hydrate and nitric acid. However, the reactants can diffuse through the pores to the electrode as vapor. Thus, gaseous products can diffuse away from the electrode without hindrance from bulk liquid.

These electrodes were made by spreading catalyst on a disk of porous Teflon and overlaying this with a perforated stainless steel sheet that had the same catalyst black plating. sandwich was pressed at 1400 psi at room temperature. 304 stainless steel sheet was 0.004 in. thick with 0.014 in. holes comprising 65% open area; it was manufactured by Perforated Products, Inc. The catalyst for the anode was 35 mg/cm² of rhodium or platinum black and for the anode was 35 mg/cm² of platinum black or powdered gold (0.1-10 microns). Initially, the porous Teflon was 9-micron pore, 1/16 in. thick, manufactured by Pall Corporation. Electrodes of this type were then used without any separator for both fuel and oxidant, with an electrolyte in between, consisting of either 5M H2SO4, 1M H₃PO₄, 1M KOH, or 1M Na₂SO₄, thus providing three different pH's. N2H4.H20 (85%) was used to feed fuel in the vapor state to the electrode, while 95% HNO3 was used in the same manner for oxidant. N2O4 was fed as a gas to the back side of the oxidant Teflon electrode. H₂O₂ (30% aqueous solution) was also tested as feed for either H2O2 or O2 gas.



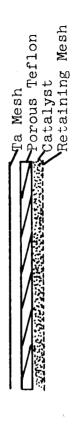


Figure 13. Porous Teflon Vapor Diffusion Electrode Fuel Cell

Many different cells comparing these variables were set up, with a Luggin capillary set into electrolyte solution so that half-cell and full-cell potentials could be measured. A Kordesch-Marko bridge gave IR-free measurements of these potentials.

The results obtained indicated that the mechanical parameters of the system were more important than the specific catalysts used for each half cell. That is, Pt, Rh, Ru blacks made little or no difference in the half cell characteristics.

Difficulty in controlling the vapor transport of both fuel and oxidant at a given temperature led to contamination of the electrolyte and eventually deteriorated one of the electrodes severely.

Table 23 gives open-circuit voltages and the best performance obtained with specific full-cell systems. The mechanical imperfections in the design of the electrodes led to a new procedure for making them, which is described in Appendix A-2.

4. Porous Teflon Vapor Electrode-N2H4-Soluble HNO3 Full Cells with Cation Exchange Membrane

Previous experiments demonstrated that the porous Teflon electrode worked for both the anode and cathode. However, the problem of electrolyte deterioration remained. The diffusion of the reactants into the electrolyte also deteriorated electrode performance. Therefore, to investigate the performance of this type of electrode in the absence of the effects of diffusion, a cation exchange membrane in direct contact with the anode was used to separate the compartments. Thus, the only material transported to the Rh/SS mesh electrode pressed between the opposite sides of the Teflon and a cation exchange membrane consisted of N_2H_4 and H_2O vapor (Figure 14).

On the opposite side of the ion exchange membrane was the oxidant solution, consisting of either 5M $\rm HNO_3$ or 1M $\rm HNO_3$ and 5M $\rm H_2SO_4$. A Luggin capillary with the oxidant solution as a bridge to a calomel reference electrode was situated next to the membrane.

A Kordesch-Marko bridge was used to measure IR-free potentials. The anode half cell, cathode half cell, and full-cell potentials without IR drop could also be measured. Furthermore, the approximate resistance of the membrane was found by measuring the anode potential including IR drop and subtracting the

Table 23
FULL CELL DATA FROM TEPLON POROUS VAPOR DIFFUSION ELECTRODES

Anode	Cathode	Current Density (ma/cm²	Elect-		Anode Feed	Cathode Feed	at sa	ntial vs ame PH an Cathode	nd Temp Full	Temp °C
Rh	Ąu	0 20	5MH ₂ SO₄	85 %	N2H4.H20	70% HNO3	+0.27 +0.45	+1.10 +1.06	0.83 0.61	50 70
Pt "	Au	0 20	. 11		# #	11 14	+0.26 +0.45	+1.17 +1.05	0.91 0.60	70
Pt	Au	0 8	1MH3PO4		#1 #1	H *	+0.17 +0.21	+1.00 +0.90	0.83 0.69	.0 90
Pt/Ru/	/ Pt	. 0	5мкон		11	30% H ₂ O ₂	+0.22	+1.02	08.0	$I_{i}^{*} \epsilon_{j}^{-}$
Au	11	4	п		11	11	+0.16	+0.90	0.74	;
Pt/Ru/	/ Au	0	11	•	II .	N2O4	+0.43	+1.47	1.03	46
Au	11	8	11		H	и	+0.60	+1.59	+0.99	96

^{*} IR Free

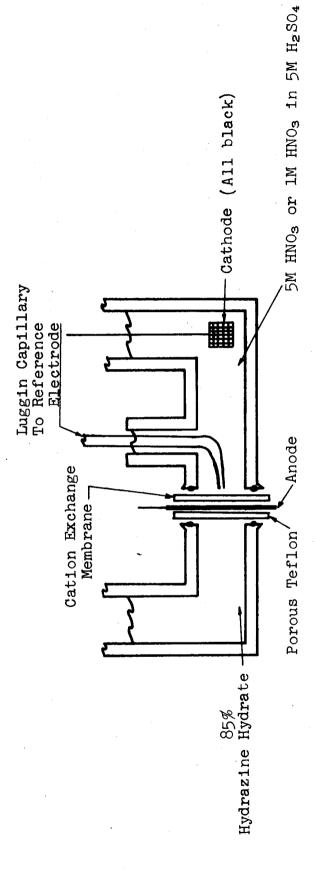


Figure 14. N2H4 Vapor Fuel Cell with Soluble HNO3 as Oxidant

IR free anode potential. The $\Delta E/I$ was the approximate membrane resistance.

The cathode was set about 10 cm from the ion exchange membrane, and was a gold/stainless steel (Au/SS) mesh.

The advantages of these quasi-full cell arrangements were the following:

- 1. IR-free potentials for each electrode could be determined.
- 2. Values for membrane or separator resistance under full-cell conditions could be determined.
- 3. Problems of short circuiting of cell were eliminated so that basic investigations of full cell systems could be made.
- 4. Leakage problems were absent.

The full-cell open circuit potential at 60°C varied between 1.50 and 1.55 volts. The anode potential was -0.38 volt versus the standard hydrogen electrode (SHE) while the HNO₃ potential was +1.12 volts vs SHE. This high potential was probably due to the pH difference between the anode and cathode. Under these conditions the current was probably carried by $N_2H_5^+$. This results in loss of N_2H_4 by neutralization.

The performance of the cell was highly dependent on the temperature; an elevated temperature was needed to raise the vapor pressure of the hydrazine fuel. At 30°C the open-circuit potential was +1.42 volts and at 60°C the cell showed a polarization of less than 0.1 volt up to 50 ma/cm². For experimental reasons we could not increase the current further, although the IR-free voltages were still very good. At 30°C the full-cell potential dropped off at over 1 ma/cm², because of anode failure. This temperature dependence is an excellent indication that the N₂H₄ is being transferred as a vapor, and that it is also being used in that form, for the vapor pressure of N₂H₄ in H₂O increases exponentially with the temperature (see Figure 15).

Over a 48-hour period of discontinuous usage, which included two 4-hour periods of continuous drain at 20 ma/cm², the full-cell potential decreased by only 0.08 volt, all of which occurred at the anode (see Figure 16).

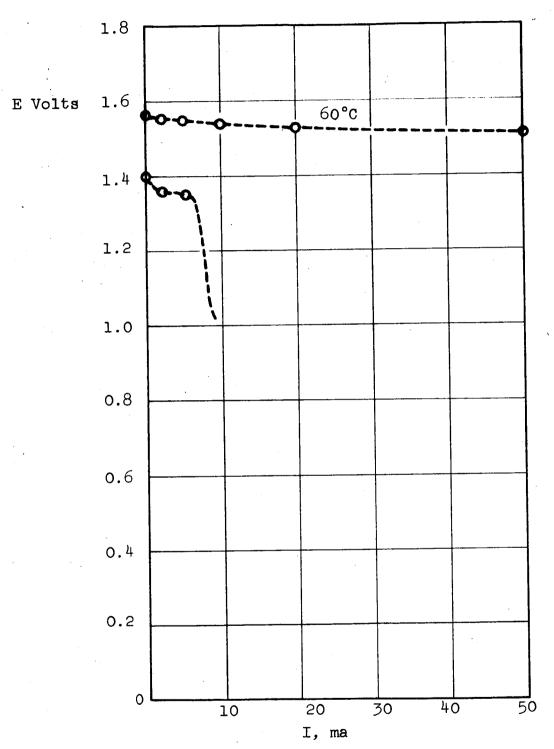


Figure 15. N₂H₄-HNO₃ Porous Teflon Cell. Variance with Temperature

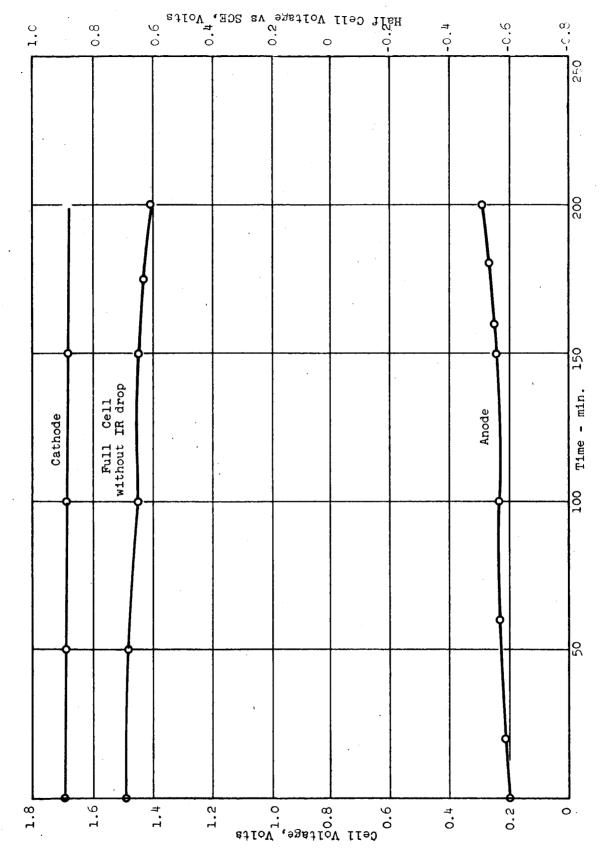


Figure 16. Chronopotentiometric Plot for Porous Teflon $N_2H_4-HNO_3$ Cell Current = 17.5 ma/cm² T = 80°C

5. Porous Teflon Vapor Electrode Full Cell with Ion Exchange Membrane

The next step was to eliminate liquid electrolyte in a full cell by placing the electrodes against the opposite sides of a cation exchange membrane. Figure 17 illustrates the type of construction used in full cells employing an ion exchange membrane as separator. The perforated steel sheet (retaining mesh) provided good continuous contact with the cation exchange membrane type 61-AZ1-183 (sulfonated polystyrene on a Dynel® backing) manufactured by Ionics, Inc. Further contact between the catalyst and ion exchange membrane was provided by a liquid film (H₂O + N₂H₄) which diffused to the anode and condensed, while H₂O was formed as a consequence of the electrochemical reaction at the cathode. This insured three phase contact.

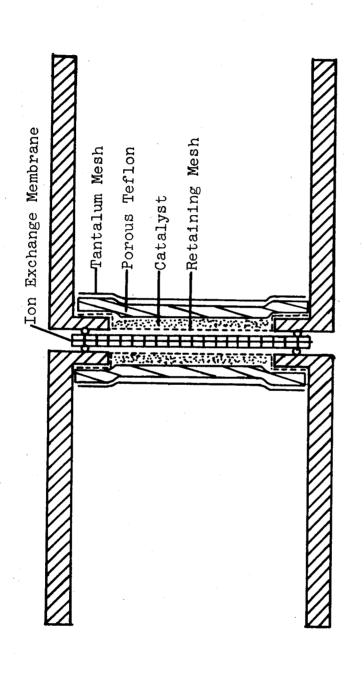
The electrode backing was a Teflon-impregnated cloth 0.006 in. thick with 15-micron pores (type TV-20A-40, manufactured by Pallflex Products, Division of Pall Corporation). The active electrode area was 2.85 cm².

Three sequences of experiments were run to establish the advantages and limitations of the porous Teflon electrodes in combination with an ion exchange membrane. Refinements were sacrificed to cover ground and establish feasible areas for future investigations.

a. Porous Teflon with Cation Exchange Membrane (Sequence I, Table 24)

In sequence I, 9-micron, 1/16 in. thick porous Teflon was used in the construction of the electrodes. In the full cell the cation exchange membrane was used and the cell was operated at 90° C. This sequence established:

- l. Porous Teflon electrodes can be used for the anode and cathode in a full cell operating on 85% hydrazine hydrate and concentrated nitric acid employing a cation exchange membrane as electrolyte and separator.
- 2. Using this electrode construction with the ion exchange membrane, negligible spontaneous decomposition of the hydrazine occurred compared with the direct immersion of the active electrode surface in liquid hydrazine hydrate.



Porous Teflon Diffusion Electrodes with Ion Exchange Membrane Figure 17. Fuel Cell Construction:

Table 24

FULL CELL SEQUENCE I - ION EXCHANGE ELECTROLPTE FULL CELL FEASIBILITY TESTS

Membrane - Ionics cation exchange Anode - Rh catalyst Cathode - Au catalyst Porous Teflon: 94 porosity, 1/16 in. thick

	Notes	Full cell ran	overnight at 30°C			New electrodes and cation membrane	Took N204 test 7 hours for stabilization			Asbestos separator saturated	with 5M H2SO4. Asbestos became	stiff with hydrazine sulfate ppt.
	Temp.	30	65	95	95	95	6		06	85	•	
	Voltage + IR volts			1.26	0.86	0.42	carry	ent	1.22		carry	
Electrochemical Performance	K-M Voltage volts			1.28	46.0	0.50	would not	any current	1.28		could not	any current
	Current density mg/cm²			7	17.5	24.5	O 32		10.5		00	
	0CV volts	1.03	1.30	1.37			1.35		1.38	0	<u> </u>	
	Oxidant	70% HNOs					N ₂ O ₄		70% HNOs	70% PANO.	FORT &	
	Fuel	85% N2H4.H20	i				85% NaH. H20		HMM 966	: : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : : :	Oyle nent-neo	
	Run	1	ı				Ħ				Ħ	

- 3. Monomethylhydrazine could be used directly at the same anode used for hydrazine with the cation exchange membrane.
- 4. Dinitrogen tetroxide did not replace nitric acid; this evidently shows the need for a water film at the interface. However, this result does not exclude dinitrogen tetroxide if other modifications are allowed (e.g., H2SO4 electrolyte).
- 5. An asbestos mat saturated with 5N $\rm H_2SO_4$, used as separator, was much inferior to the cation exchange membrane; the open-circuit voltage was 0.5 volt less, the cell would support virtually no current, and the mat permitted gross diffusion of the hydrazine.

b. Teflon-Impregnated Cloth (Séquence II, Table 25)

In sequence II, run at 30°C, Teflon-impregnated cloth was used in the electrode construction. This offered much less resistance to the diffusion of the reactant vapors than the porous Teflon employed in Sequence I. The same set of electrodes was used throughout the three runs over an eight-day period. The cation exchange membranes were replaced as needed. To obtain halfcell performance, asbestos saturated with IN H2SO4 was sandwiched between two cation exchange membranes. A hypodermic needle attached to a syringe containing 1N H2SO4 was inserted into the asbestos and a reference electrode was set in the syringe, (Figure 18). Figure 19 shows the short-term performance of this cell. In general, the half cells added up to the full cell, while the absolute half-cell potentials shifted with time and the direction from which a given current was approached. This sequence established that:

- l. Resistance to diffusion of the reactant vapors greatly influences electrode performance. This cell performed better at 30°C in terms of full-cell voltage and polarization than the Sequence I cell did at 90°C using the thicker and less porous Teflon.
- 2. With good separation in terms of interdiffusion of reactants, no spontaneous decomposition of reactants was evident. If the separator failed and allowed diffusion between anode and cathode, the voltage dropped and spontaneous gassing occurred.
- 3. The voltage rose rapidly after addition of reactants (Figure 20).

^{*}See Table 24

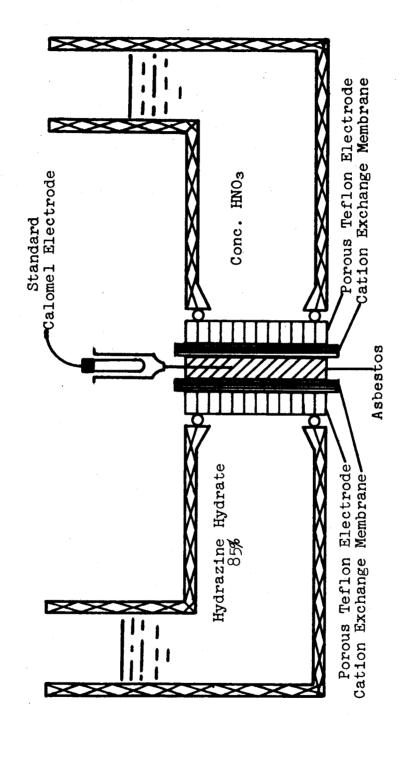
Table 25

FULL CELL SEQUENCE II - ION EXCHANGE ELECTROLYTE FULL CELL. PALL TEPLON-IMPREGNATED GLASS ELECTRODES

Used Two Cation Exchange Membranes with 1M H2SO4 Saturated Asbestos Between the two Membranes.

Rh Catalyst - Anode Au Catalyst - Cathode

					Electrochemical Performance	ជ		
Run	Fuel	Oxident	O.C.V. volts	Current density ma/cm2	K-M voltage volts	Voltage + IR volts	Temp.	Notes
н	85% N2H4.H20	70% HNOs	1.63	£	1.57	1.26	8	No visible gassing at electrodes
				53	catl	cathode falled		ran over weekend at 35 ma/cm2,
								failed at undetermined time due to
								cathode mechanical failure.
Ħ	85% N2H4.H20	70% HNOs					50	See Figure 19 and 20 for polarizatio
							•	curve, short term, and 0.C.V. voltag
								rise after reactant addition.
				17.5	1.29	1.43	8	ran overnight.
III	85% N2H4.H20	70% HNOS	1.66	17.5			30	Same cell as above fresh reactants.
								Ran for 32 hours, see Figure 21



Full Cell Construction, Employing Porous Teflon Vapor Diffusion Electrodes and Ion Exchange Membrane, Used for Half-Cell Measurements Figure 18.

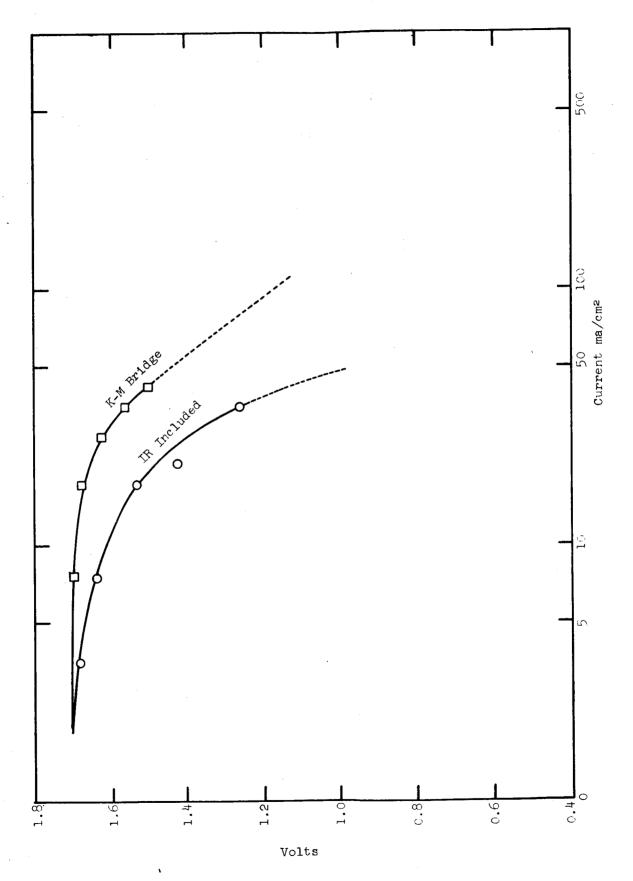


Figure 19. Short Term Performance of Full Cell Using Porous Teflon Electrodes and Cation Exchange Membrane with Asbestos Separators at 30°C

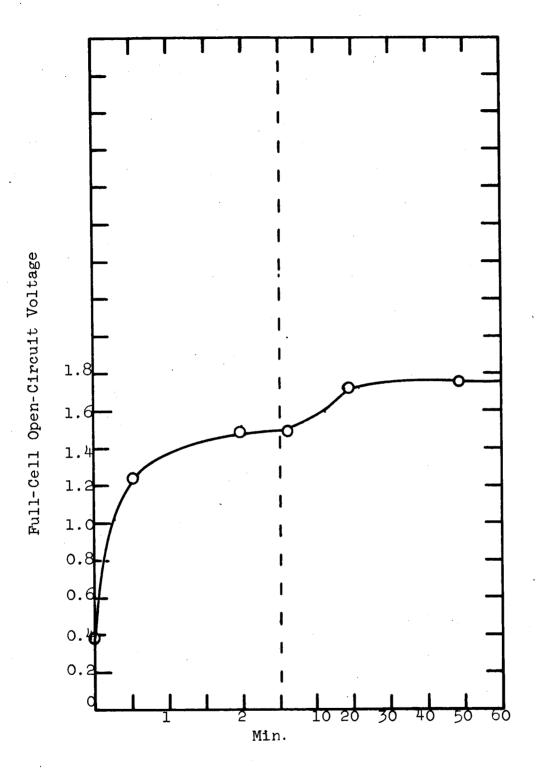


Figure 20. Voltage Rise After Addition of Reactants

- 4. The electrodes after 8 days' use retained their performance at $17.5~\text{ma/cm}^2$.
- 5. All of the polarization at 17.5 ma/cm^2 took place in 6 hours (Figure 21). For the remainder of the 30-hour run the voltages stayed constant.
 - c. Teflon Electrode with Dual Ion Exchange Membrane (Sequence III, Table 26)

In Sequence III a set of electrodes identical to those of Sequence II was used: This series of runs established that an anion exchange membrane could be used in place of the cation exchange membrane or in combination with the cation membrane and still yield similar open-circuit voltages. However, polarization as a function of current was greater than with just the cation exchange membrane. Monomethylhydrazine was run with nitric acid and an anion exchange membrane at 30°C.

These experiments indicated that the porous Teflon electrode was stable and versatile. However, the open-circuit voltages of 1.7 volts were unexpected and at first were believed due to a pH difference across the separator. Analysis showed that if H+ or OH- was the current-carrying ion, the pH difference would , not contribute to the full-cell potential. However, if more than one ion carried the current or if cations and anions other than H+ or OH carried the current, then the pH difference contributed to the full-cell potential. With the cation exchange membrane, it was suspected that current was being carried by the N2H5+ ion, thus accounting for the high voltage. To check the disappearance of reactants by diffusion and decomposition, a full cell was set up with the porous Teflon electrodes and one cation exchange membrane. This cell was filled with 'electrolyte and examined at no load. To prevent leakage, the junction of the electrodes and cation membrane was sealed with paraffin. Samples of the reactants were withdrawn and titrated. Figure 22 shows the disappearance of reactants. For hydrazine this rate was 0.00121 moles per hour per square centimeter, which if used electrochemically could provide:

0.00121 mole x 4 equivalents x 96,500 coulombs $\frac{1}{3600}$ $\frac{hr}{sec} = 130 \frac{ma}{cm^2}$

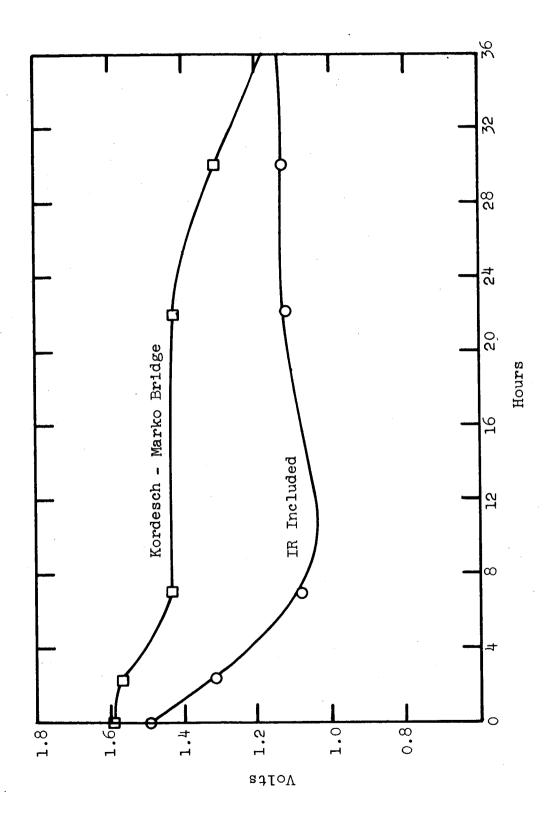


Figure 21. Full Cell Polarization Versus Time

c. D. = 17.5 ma/cm^2

Table 26

FULL CELL SEQUENCE III - ION EXCHANGE ELECTROLYTE FULL CELLS WITH CATION AND/OR ANION MEMBRANES

All Other Conditions the same as for Sequence II

Distilled HgO in asbestos N₂O₄ produced at cathode. Gassing at cathode, no produced at cathode. Assestes saturated with lM KOH. N204 KOH in asbestos N204. Ion*
exchange
membrane
sequence 30 Anode/Ca/AS/A/ Cathode 30 Anode/A/AS/Ca/ Cathode 25/A A/AS/A Temp. ž 8 Voltage + IR volts 1.05 0.25 0.37 Electrochemical Performance K-M voltage volts 1.00 1.40 1.25 1.11 Current density ma/cm² 17.5 17.5 17.5 30.5 O.C.V. 1.50 1.70 1.83 1.68 Oxidant 70% HNOs 70% HNOS 70% HNOS 70% HNOs 85% N2H4.H20 85% N2H4.H20 85% N2H4.H20 98% MMH Fuel Run H ဌ Ħ

*A - Anion Membrane - Ionics AS- Aspestos Membrane - Ionics

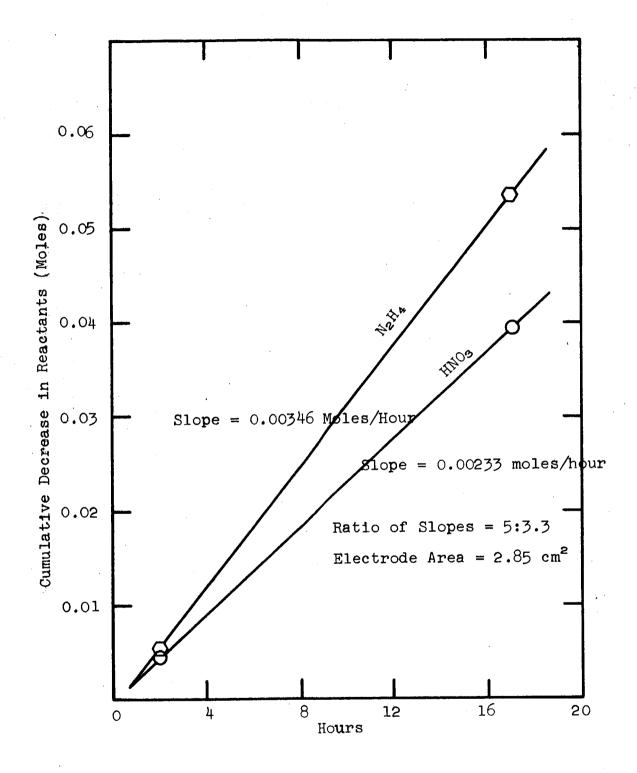


Figure 22. Disappearance of Reactants at Open Circuit

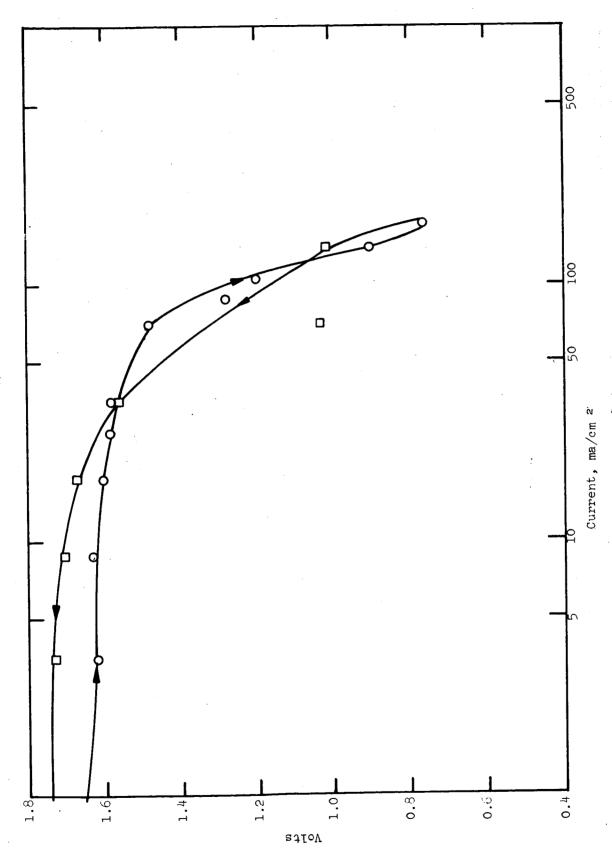
For nitric acid the rate of disappearance was 0.00082 moles/hr/cm². Because the electron change was not known this figure could not be used to check the hydrazine disappearance or to establish the amount decomposed versus the amount diffused. We assumed most of the reactants disappeared because hydrazine diffused to the cathode compartment to react directly with the nitric acid.

At this point it became necessary to use the new electrode construction described in the Appendix A-3. Previously the catalyst was prepared by reducing soluble salts of rhodium and gold with hydrazine. Using catalyst prepared this way no problem of separation of the Teflon-impregnated cloth and perforated steel was encountered, yielding a simple and easily constructed electrode. Use of the commercial rhodium black and powdered gold saved preparation labor but separation of the cloth and steel occurred after a few minutes, operation in a full cell because of the formation of gas pockets. The new electrode prevented this separation.

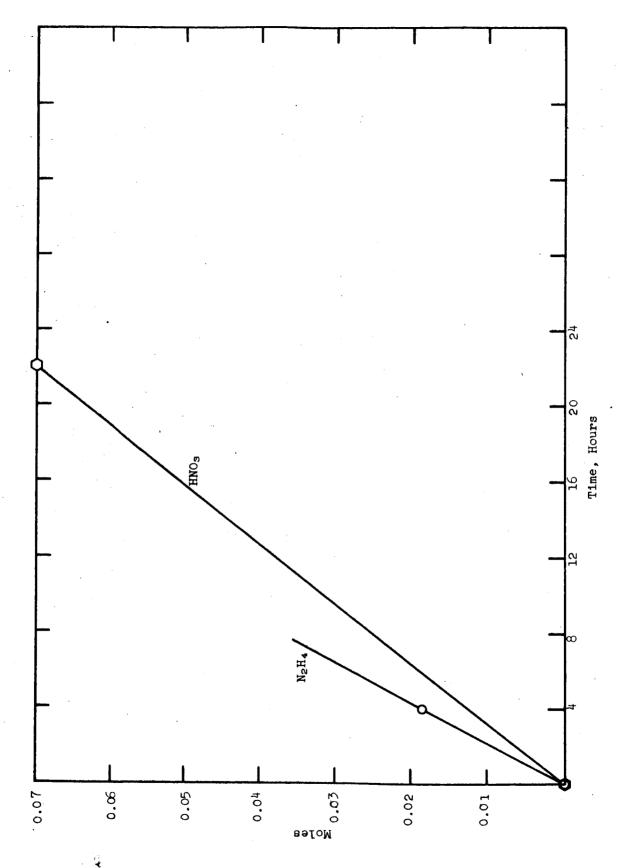
Figure 23 shows the short-term polarization of a full cell using the new electrode construction and a cation exchange membrane. Figure 24 shows the rate of disappearance of reactants for the above cell at 17.5 ma/cm². The rate of disappearance of reactants was greater than for the cell standing at no load, so it appears that in this case $N_2H_5^+$ was the current carrying species. This would contribute to the full-cell voltage as explained in the theoretical discussion. This fact would result in excessive use of reactants, which is the main disadvantage of this system. However, the following other advantages of the porous Teflon vapor diffusion electrode in combination with an ion exchange membrane separator still remain:

- 1. Storage of the concentrated reactants adjacent to the Teflon is possible without excessive spontaneous decomposition occurring, eliminating many problems associated with the pumping and feeding of reactants to electrodes.
- 2. If hydrogen peroxide can be used in combination with an anion exchange membrane, it is probable that OH^- from the electrochemical reduction of H_2O_2 would be the sole current carrying ion, thus eliminating waste of reactants due to diffusion of ions other than those formed electrochemically. The same argument applies to the direct use of hydrogen at the anode in combination with a cation exchange membrane.

^{*}See Section IV-E



Short Term Polarization of N₂H₄-HNO₃ Full Cell Utilizing Porous Telfion Electrodes & Cation Exchange Membrane **Figure 23.**



N₂H₄-HNO₃ Full Cell. Disappearance of Reactants under 17.5 ma/cm² Load at 30°C. Figure 24.

VI. FUEL CELL ELECTRODES IN NONAQUEOUS ELECTROLYTES

The purpose of this investigation was to determine the feasibility of using nonaqueous electrolytes in fuel cells. Although water has many advantages for use as a fuel-cell solvent for electrolyte (its excellent ionizing ability and economy, for example) special applications of fuel cells may warrant the use of solvents other than water. For instance, water solutions will freeze or become viscous at arctic temperatures or will boil above 100°C. The reactivity of water with many active metals excludes their use in equeous systems. Some potent oxidizers react with water and therefore cannot be used as cathodic materials in aqueous systems. The use of nonaqueous electrolytes may broaden the temperature limitations of fuel cells as well as permit use of some powerful oxidizers or reducing materials that decompose water.

Two nonaqueous solvent systems were investigated:

(1) anhydrous hydrogen fluoride (AHF) and fluoride salts, and (2) anhydrous organic solvents.

A. ANHYDROUS HYDROGEN FLUORIDE SYSTEMS

Although little electrochemical work has been done on solutions in hydrogen fluoride, it is a likely candidate for such studies. Because of its high dielectric constant (66), hydrogen fluoride would be expected to dissolve some salts to form conducting solutions. A striking analogy exists between (1) hydrogen fluoride and metal fluorides, and (2) water and metal oxides or hydroxides. Because of the considerable advances in fluorine chemistry and the improvement of materials of construction, the use of fluorine electrochemical systems should be considered, particularly for specialized application.

The most potent oxidizers known, elemental fluorine and chlorine trifluoride, are rocket fuel candidates and may conceivably be used as electrochemical oxidants for the production of electrical power in the rocket being propelled. Since fluorine is the most active oxidant, only completely fluorinated materials such as hydrogen fluoride or fluoride salts can be considered as solvents. or electrolytes for fluorine or chlorine trifluoride oxidants. Since such fuels as hydrogen and hydrazine are compatible with hydrogen fluoride, it is possible that a fuel cell can be devised that uses fluorine or chlorine trifluoride as the oxidant and hydrogen or hydrazine as the reductant.

Chlorine trifluoride (CTF) and anhydrous hydrazine were selected as reactants for this exploratory investigation. Their reactions in a fuel cell were postulated to be:

(Anode)
$$N_2H_4$$
 (1) \rightarrow $N_2 + 4E^+ + 4e^-$ (Cathode) $C1F_3$ (g) \rightarrow $C1O + 3F^- - 4e^-$ (Cell) $C1F_3$ (g) $+ N_2H_4$ (1) \rightarrow $N_2 + HC1 + 3HF$ \triangle $F^\circ = -223$ Kcal $E^\circ = 2.42$ volts

Energy Density = 950 watt-hours/lb.

The unusually high maximum voltage of this combination is one of the interesting aspects of using CTF as a cathodic material.

The initial phase of this investigation was concerned with the cathodic reduction of CTF and the anodic oxidation of hydrazine in AHF and in fused KF-AHF melts.

1. Anodic Oxidation of Hydrazine in Anhydrous Hydrogen Fluoride

The anodic polarization of catalyzed electrodes in contact with a lM solution of hydrazine dihydrogen fluoride (HDHF) that was 0.5M in sodium fluoride was measured with the apparatus shown in Figure 25.

The Teflon cell, designed for half-cell measurements of polarized electrodes, contained the test electrode of platinum or carbon, a reference electrode, and a platinum or carbon polarizing electrode.

A mercury thermometer in the half cell was protected by a thermowell of Kel-F tubing. A slow stream of dry nitrogen passed through the cell to suppress atmospheric contamination. The test electrode was a platinum rectangle of 1 cm² total area spot welded to a platinum lead and plated with the catalyst metal under investigation.* The catalyzed electrodes were mounted in Teflon holders that could be inserted, one at a time, in the solution of HDHF in AHF-NaF contained in the Teflon half cell (Figure 25).

^{*}Details of electrode and reference electrode preparation are given in the Appendix.

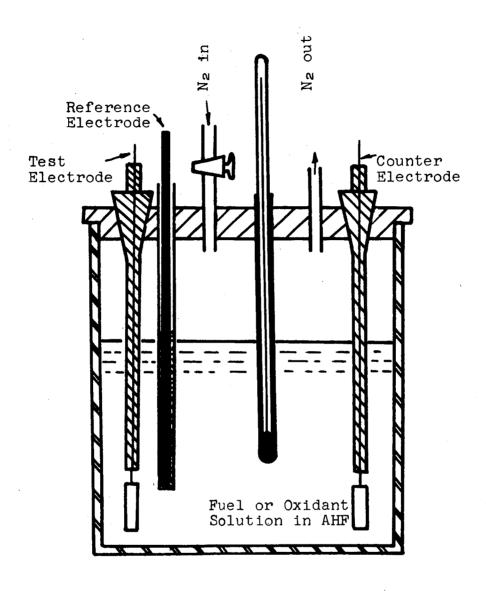


Figure 25. Anhydrous Hydrogen Fluoride Cell

The following test electrodes were used: carbon, platinum, and platinum plated with platinum black, gold, palladium, ruthenium, and iridium. The data are shown in Figure 26. The best electrodes (those showing least polarization for a given current density) were carbon and platinized platinum. The uncatalyzed platinum, iridized platinum, and ruthenized platinum electrodes polarized severely under the test conditions.

Since hydrazine dihydrogen fluoride itself is an electrolyte,

 $N_2H_4 \cdot 2HF = N_2H_5 + HF_2$

one series was run in which HDHF served the dual role of fuel and electrolyte. Anodic polarization results are plotted in Figure 27. Results were somewhat better than those in which sodium fluoride electrolyte was added (Figure 26). Carbon and platinized platinum electrodes showed the least polarization. These electrodes withstood current densities of 20 ma/cm² with 0.5 volt polarization. Unplatinized platinum and iridium were most severely polarized at a given current density.

2. <u>Cathodic Reduction of Dinitrogen Tetroxide in Anhydrous Hydrogen Fluoride</u>

Cathodic polarization experiments were conducted in solutions of dinitrogen tetroxide (N_2O_4) in anhydrous hydrogen fluoride (AHF).

Solutions were made 0.5M in sodium fluoride to improve the electrolytic conductance. Cathodic polarization curves for various electrode materials in contact with the N_2O_4 solutions in AHF are shown in Figure 28. The best cathodes (least polarization) were the ruthenized and platinized platinum and carbon electrodes. Cathode current densities as high as $100~\text{ma/cm}^2$ were obtained with a polarization of 0.5 volt from the open-circuit potential. The polarized potentials, however, were too low to be of interest for a practical fuel cell. Also, the production of water as a result of N_2O_4 reduction.

 N_2O_4 + 4HF + 4e⁻ = 2NO + 2H₂O + 4F⁻

would contaminate the initial anhydrous system. No further work is planned on the use of N_2O_4 as an oxidizer in AHF solutions.

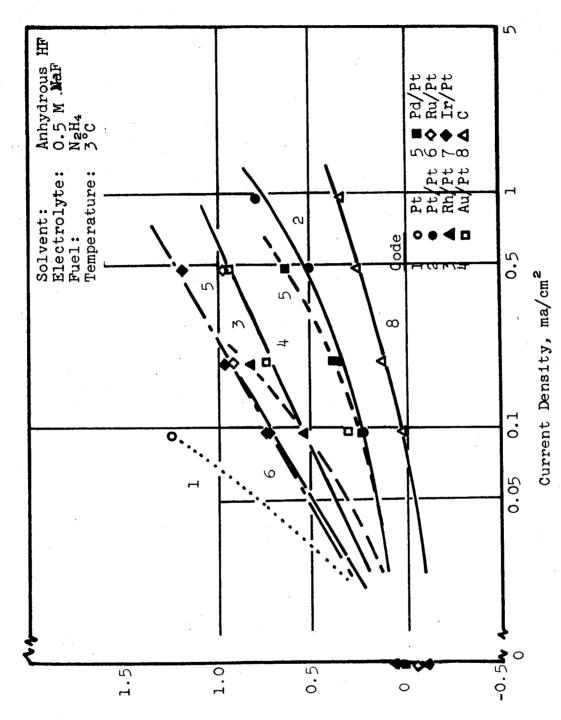
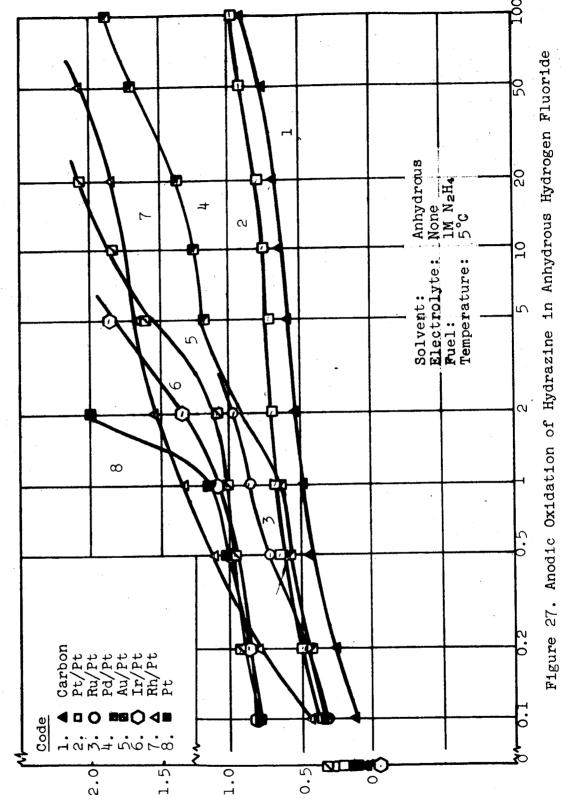


Figure 26. Anodic Oxidation of 1 M Hydrazine in Anhydrous Hydrogen Fluoride

Electrode Potential vs. Hydrogen Electrode



Potential vs. Hydrogen Electrode

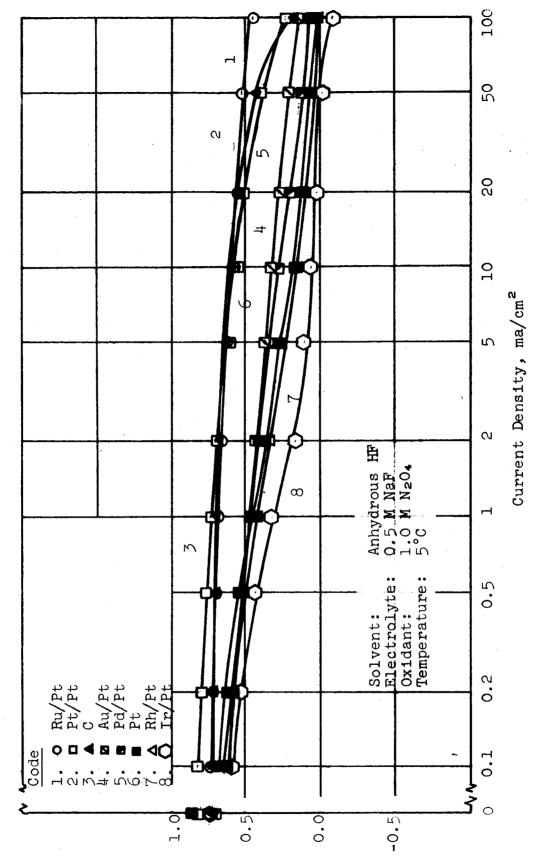


Figure 28. Cathodic Reduction of Dinitrogen Tetroxide in Anhydrous Hydrogen Fluoride

Electrode Potential vs. Hydrogen Electrode

3. Cathodic Reduction of Chlorine Trifluoride in Anhydrous Hydrogen Fluoride

The apparatus used for studying the cathodic polarization of electrodes in chlorine trifluoride (\mbox{CTF}) solution was similar to that used with N₂O₄ studies except that a Dry Ice-carbon tetrachloride cooling bath was used instead of an ice bath because of the violent reactivity of CTF with water. AHF solutions were made $\mbox{O.5M}$ in sodium fluoride to improve the conductance of CTF-AHF solutions. (See Table 27).

Polarization studies at the platinized platinum and gold-plated platinum electrodes are shown in Figure 29. Both electrodes carried a current density of 100 ma/cm² with 0.5 volt polarization at 5°C. The potential of the platinized electrode was better than that of the gold-plated electrode. Both electrode potentials were much better than those obtained using N₂O₄ as the oxidant (Figure 28).

The plated gold on the platinum cathode as well as the platinum and carbon counter electrodes were noticeably attacked in the CTF solution. Further work is required to find materials that will withstand the oxidizing action of CTF and fluorine in AHF solution.

4. Anodic Oxidation of Hydrazine in Molten Mixtures of Anhydrous Hydrogen Fluoride and Potassium Fluoride

Molten mixtures of anhydrous hydrogen fluoride (AHF) and potassium fluoride were used as electrolytes for the anodic oxidation of hydrazine dihydrogen fluoride (HDHF). The boiling temperature of AHF can be increased from 19°C to 66° C by dissolving one mole of potassium fluoride in three moles of AHF. Potassium fluoride and AHF form a series of compounds with melting points within the range of $78 \pm 5^{\circ}$ C over the composition range from 37% to 60% KF (ref. 20). Such compositions are electrolyte candidates for hydrazine oxidation as well as for fluorine and GTF reduction at temperatures in the virinity of 85°C. The advantages of using salt mixtures at 85°C instead of AHF at 5°C as an electrolyte for cathodic CTF reduction, include the lower solubility of CTF at the higher temperature (73°C above its boiling temperature) and the greater reactivity associated with the higher temperature.

Table 27

CONDUCTANCE OF CHLORINE TRIFLUORIDE IN ANHYDROUS HYDROGEN FLUORIDE

Equivalent Conductance at 25°C, mhos/cm x 104	0	0.25	0.45	1.68	7.5
Specific Conductance mhos/cm x 108 -78°C 25°C	64.0	2.96	5.49	43.7	350
Specific mhos/cm	0.65	4.5	9.5	82.5	09†
Concentration moles HF/liter at 25°C	0	1.00	1.35	2.57	4.67

Data of Rogers, Speirs, and Panish (ref. 24).

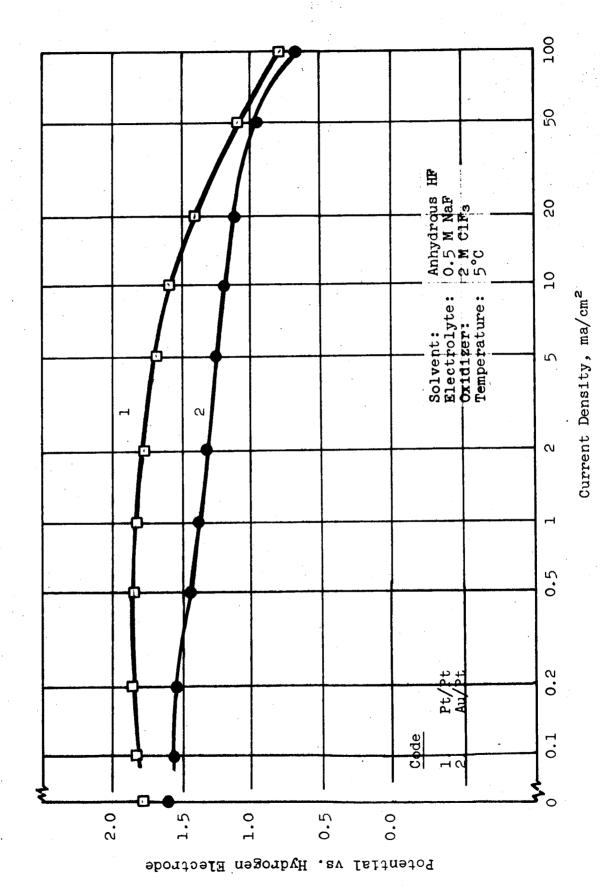


Figure 29. Cathodic Reduction of Chlorine Trifluoride in Anhydrous Hydrogen Fluoride

The composition KF·3HF was prepared by slowly stirring small increments of potassium bifluoride into liquid AHF in a tared Teflon flask. Polarization measurements were made in apparatus similar to that shown in Figure 25 except that a stainless steel beaker was used as a container instead of Teflon because of the better thermal conduction of the metal. Sufficient HDHF was weighed into the molten salt to make it lM in hydrazine. The assembly was immersed in a fluidized sand thermostat for temperature regulation at 85°C. The cell was purged with dry nitrogen to exclude air and moisture.

Rhodium and ruthenium-plated platinum were the best anodes for oxidation of hydrazine in AHF (Figure 30). Both materials sustained current densities up to 100 ma/cm² at a polarization of 0.5 volt at 85°C. Carbon, plain platinum, and gold-plated platinum polarized badly at very low current densities.

5. Cathodic Reduction of Chlorine Trifluoride in Molten Mixtures of Anhydrous Hydrogen Fluoride and Potassium Fluoride

The apparatus used for studying the cathodic reduction of CTF in AHF-KF melts was identical to that used for polarization studies of hydrazine in these melts at 85° C.

Since the melting point of KF·3HF (66° C) is higher than the boiling temperature of CTF, the oxidant was fed to the cell as a gas when operating at 85° C. The CTF gas was slowly bubbled into the molten KF·3HF melt directly below the solid catalyzed platinum electrode. The void space above the melt was continuously purged with dry nitrogen to exclude air and moisture.

The most effective cathode material for CTF reduction in molten KF·3HF at 85°C was carbon (Figure 31). The current-voltage curve was flat up to a current density of 2 ma/cm² but fell sharply at higher currents. Solid platinum electrodes electroplated with rhodium, iridium, gold, and platinum black had somewhat lower potentials and polarized at the same current density of 2 ma/cm². Potentials of all these cathodes up to current densities of 2 ma/cm² were higher than those of CTF in AHF at 5 C (see Figure 29).

Potential vs. Hydrogen Electrode (volta)

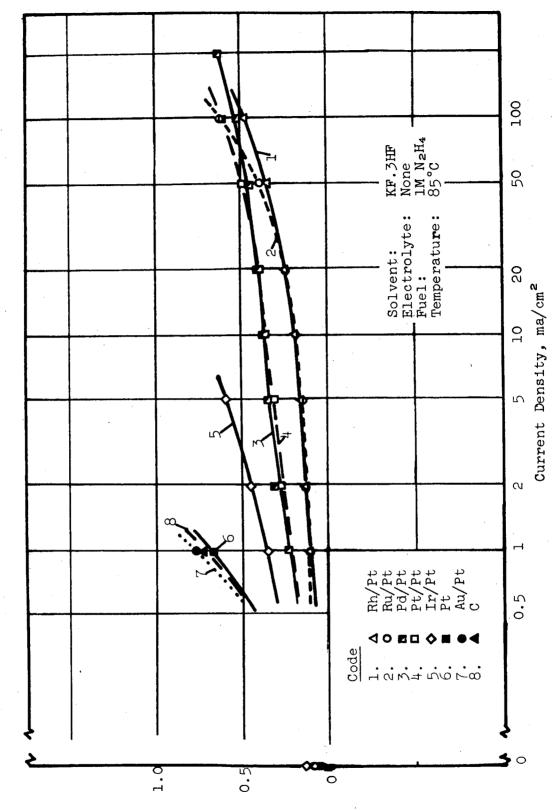


Figure 30. Anodic Oxidation of 1M Hydrazine in KF.3HF

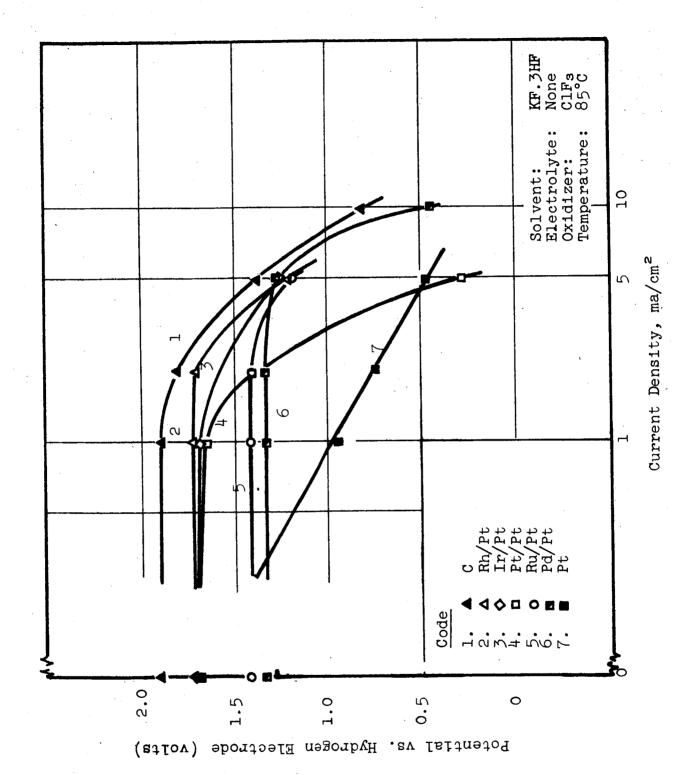


Figure 31. Cathodic Reduction of Chlorine Trifluoride in KF. 3HF

6. <u>Chlorine Trifluoride Compatibility with Hydrazine in Anhydrous</u> <u>Hydrogen Fluoride</u>

Since chlorine trifluoride (CTF) and anhydrous hydrazine mixtures are hypergolic (ref. 20-A), some concentration limits of compatibility were determined in liquid anhydrous hydrogen fluoride (AHF) solution. Compatibility between these materials is particularly important in full cells where anolyte and catholyte mixing may occur by diffusion through the separator. CTF solutions in AHF at -23° were mixed with hydrazine dihydrogen fluoride (HDHF) solutions in AHF at several concentrations in an open Kel-F test tube. Starting at 3M CTF with 2M HDHF, all mixtures reacted explosively when one solution was added dropwise to the other at -23°C, except those of 1M concentrations. In the latter case, a mild crackling noise was heard on addition of the first few drops of CTF tothe HDHF solution. Otherwise, no vigorous reaction or gas liberation was observed, even on warming the mixture to approximately 20°C. The CTF-HDHF solution became yellow (CTF in AHF is faintly yellow) and gave a positive test for oxidizer with moistened starch-potassium iodide paper. Lowconcentration catholyte-anolyte mixing may be tolerable. Some of the vigorous reaction that occurs on mixing these materials may be caused by the reaction of CTF with traces of water in the HDHF solution. Commercial hydrogen fluoride was used for all runs.

B. NONAQUEOUS ORGANIC SYSTEMS

1. Conductance Measurements

The organic solvents chosen for study were acetonitrile, N,N-dimethylformamide (DMF), propylene carbonate, and pyridine. The solvents employed were all of good, commercially available quality and were used without further purification. These solvents are known to furnish conducting solutions with many inorganic salts. The inorganic salts were dried at elevated temperatures for three days. Specific conductance measurements were carried out using a Model 250-DA Electromeasurements, Inc., impedance bridge with a General Radio Precision Condenser 0.1100 $\mu\mu\text{f}$, and an Esi Model 855-Al oscillatoramplifier. The cell constant of a dip-type conductance cell was determined employing 0.1 demal KCl at 25°C.* The specific conductance in ohm-1 cm-1 of various solvent-salt electrolytes are listed in Table 28. The conductances of electrolytes and N2O4 in nonaqueous solvents are given in Table 29.

Considering conductivity alone, acetonitrile and DMF are superior to propylene carbonabe and pyridine as solvents, and KSCN and Mg(ClO₄)₂ are superior to $C_6H_5SO_3Na$ as salts. The Ag/AgCl electrode was selected as the reference electrode for half cell studies because of

^{*0.1} D = 7.4789 gram KCl/1000 gm H₂O.

Table 28

ELECTRICAL CONDUCTANCE OF SALTS DISSOLVED IN NONAQUEOUS ORGANIC MEDIA

Salt	Weight, (g) Per 100 cc Solvent	Specific Conductivity at 25°C ohm-1 cm-1	Comments
		Solvent - Acetonitrile	
None KSCN Mg(ClO ₄) ₂ KCl NH ₄ Cl (CH ₃) ₄ NCl C ₆ H ₅ SO ₃ Na	10 5 10 2 1 1 5	6.4 x 10-7 2.8 x 10-2 1.9 x 10-2 2.8 x 10-2 6.0 x 10-5 2.7 x 10-5 5.6 x 10-4 1.6 x 10-4	saturated solution dissolved dissolved saturated solution saturated solution saturated solution saturated solution
	Solve	ent - N,N-Dimethylformamide	
None KSCN Mg(ClO ₄) ₂ KCl NH ₄ Cl (CH ₃) ₄ NCl C ₆ H ₅ SO ₃ Na	10 5 10 2 1 1 5	3.8 x 10 ⁻⁶ 2.6 x 10 ⁻² 1.2 x 10 ⁻² 1.9 x 10 ⁻² 1.5 x 10 ⁻⁴ 1.8 x 10 ⁻⁴ 1.5 x 10 ⁻³ 4.8 x 10 ⁻³	dissolved dissolved dissolved saturated solution saturated solution saturated solution dissolved
	Solve	ent - Propylene Carbonate	
None KSCN Mg(ClO ₄) ₂ KCl NH ₄ Cl (CH ₃) ₄ NCl C ₆ H ₅ SO ₃ Na	10 5 10 2 1 1 5	6.4 x 10 ⁻⁷ 7.8 x 10 ⁻³ 4.3 x 10 ⁻³ 5.9 x 10 ⁻³ 2.4 x 10 ⁻⁵ 3.1 x 10 ⁻⁵ 4.9 x 10 ⁻⁴ 8.2 x 10 ⁻⁵	dissolved dissolved saturated solution
		Solvent - Pyridine	
None KSCN Mg (C104) ₂ KC1 NH ₄ C1 (CH ₃) ₄ NC1 C ₆ H ₅ SO ₃ Na	- 552 1 1 5	2.2 x 10 ⁻⁷ 1.5 x 10 ⁻³ 5.0 x 10 ⁻³ 1.9 x 10 ⁻⁶ 8.8 x 10 ⁻⁶ 6.0 x 10 ⁻⁶ 8.2 x 10 ⁻⁵	saturated solution

Table 29

SPECIFIC CONDUCTANCE OF ELECTROLYTES AND N2O4-ELECTROLYTE SOLUTIONS

	Experimental (this work)	-	<u>Litera</u> tı		
Solution	Specific Conductivity* ohm-1 cm-1	Temp.	Specific Conductivity	Temp.	Ref.
Acetonitrile (distilled from P ₂ O ₅)	1.6 <u>+</u> 0.8 x 10	-в 25	5/x 10 ⁻⁶ to 9 x 10 ⁻⁸	24,25	Several
10% Mg(ClO ₄) ₂ in aceton- itrile	2.95 x 10 ⁻² 2.47 x 10 ⁻²	26 0	2.38 x 10 ⁻²	24	17
lM N ₂ O ₄ in lO% Mg(ClO ₄) ₂ -acetonitrile	2.18 x 10 ⁻²	0	-	_	-
$2M N_2O_4$ in 10% $Mg(C1O_4)_2$ -acetonitrile	2.07 x 10 ⁻²	0	· -	-	-
N, N-Dimethylformamide (distilled)	~0.4 x 10⁻s	25	3/x 10 ⁻⁸ 2/x 10 ⁻⁶	25 24	18 17
10% Mg(C1O ₄) ₂ in di- methylformamide	1.88 (x 10 ⁻²	25 _,	1.59 x 10 ⁻²	24	17
Dimethylforamide saturated with Mg(ClO ₄) ₂	1.39 x 10 ⁻²	0	-	.	-
2M N ₂ O ₄ in dimethyl- formamide saturated with Mg(ClO ₄) ₂	1.01 x 10 ⁻²	0	-	-	-

^{*}Measured in calibrated 1 cm cell with an Industrial Instruments Bridge, Model 1682.

its wide applicability in many nonaqueous solvent systems (ref. 21). This electrode requires the presence of chloride ion in solution. Of the three chlorides tested, $(CH_3)_4NCl$ gave higher conductivities than either KCl or NH_4Cl . The addition of KCl to KSCN solutions did not influence the specific conductivity.

2. Compatibility of Solvents with Propellants

Qualitative tests were performed to determine the compatibility of N_2H_4 and N_2O_4 with the candidate nonaqueous media. Ten ml of lN solutions of N_2H_4 and N_2O_4 were prepared to note visible signs of reaction such as gas formation, heat release, color change, or insoluble product formation. Results are summarized in Table 30.

With N_2H_4 , clear, water-white solutions resulted for all four solvents. A strong ammoniacal odor was observed after one day with dimethylformamide, and some indication of NH_3 formation was also observed in acetonitrile. However, the rates of these reactions may not be sufficiently fast to detract from the fuel-cell performance.

Acetonitrile and propylene carbonate appear to be compatible with freshly distilled N_2O_4 . Addition of N,N-dimethylformamide to liquid N_2O_4 resulted in fuming, but the resulting solution appeared to be relatively stable. Pyridine reacted violently with N_2O_4 yielding a dark, solid residue. The three stable solutions are all bright green.

3. Anodic Oxidation of Hydrazine in Nonaqueous Organic Solvents

Preliminary half cell studies of the anodic oxidation of lM N_2H_4 solutions were carried out employing a platinized catalyst anode on a steel substrate and a platinum cathode. Half-cell potentials were measured with reference to an Ag/AgCl electrode via a Luggin capillary. Voltages were recorded at open circuit and at increasing current loads up to the point at which the potential increase became very rapid.

The electrolytes studied are listed in Table 31. The polarization of the catalyst anode is illustrated in Figures 32 and 33 where half-cell potential versus the Ag/AgCl reference electrode is plotted versus the current density in ma/cm².

The best anodic polarization curve occurred in the case of DMF with tetramethylammonium chloride as the conducting salt. A current density of 10 ma/cm² at a polarization of 0.5 volt was obtained. Less favorable potentials at all current densities were obtained for the other nonaqueous organic systems.

Table 30

COMPATIBILITY OF SOME FUELS AND OXIDANTS WITH ELECTROLYTE COMPONENTS

Key: N = no apparent reaction, some exhibit heat or cooling on mixing

C = complex formed

R = reaction

Fuel or Oxidant Reagent	<u>H202*</u>	<u>N2O4</u>	<u>N2H4*</u>
CH3CN	`. N	N(C)	N
CH3CN + KCNS	R	N	
$CH_3CN + Mg (ClO_4)_2$	N	N	
CH ₃ CN + (CH ₃) ₄ NC1	N	N	
CH3CN + AgCl			R
DMF	N	(c)	·
DMF + $Mg(ClO_4)_2$	N	N	
DMF + KCNS		R	
DMF + AgC1			R
KCNS			N
Mg (C104)2			R
DMF + CdCl2			N
Propylene Carbonate		N	N
Pyridine		R	N

^{*} H_2O_2 and N_2H_4 gassed in all electrolytes in presence of Pt/Pt. Gassing was less than in aqueous media and less for N_2H_4 than for H_2O_2 .

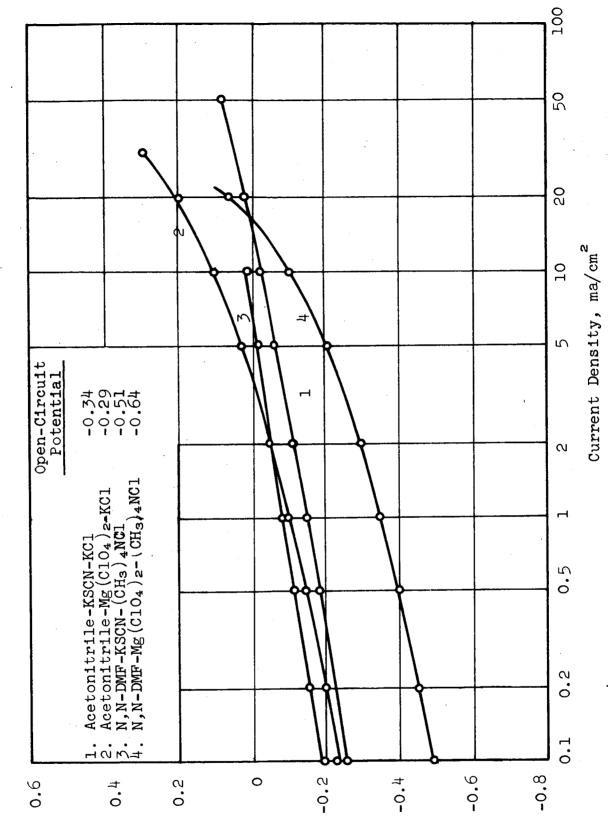


Figure 32. Anodic Oxidation of Hydrazine in Acetonitrile and Dimethylformamide

Half-Cell Potential, Volts after 2 minutes vs Ag/AgCl

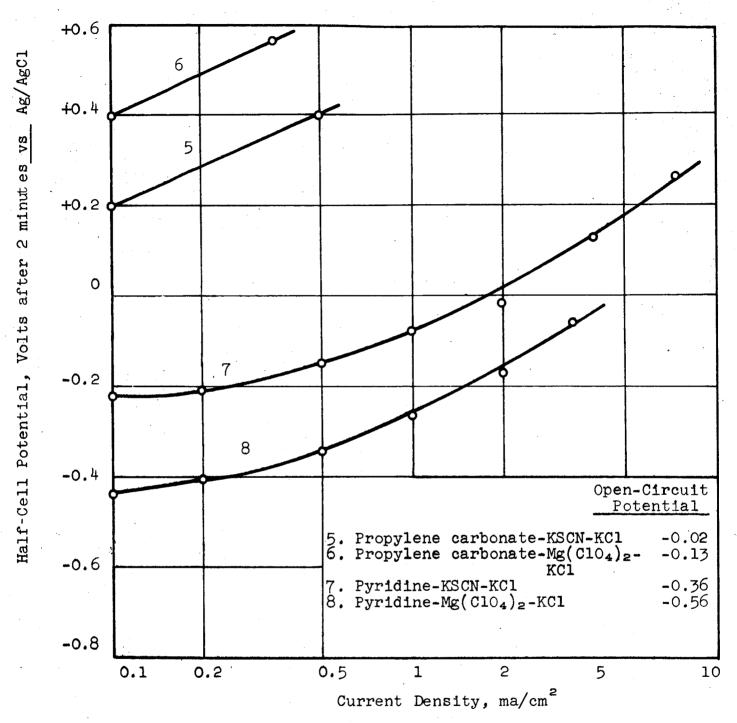


Figure 33. Anodic Oxidation of Hydrazine in Propylene Carbonate and Pyridine

Table 31
HALF-CELL STUDIES WITH 1M HYDRAZINE

Run <u>No.</u>	Solvent	Salt (wt g/250 ml)	Comments
1	Acetonitrile	KSCN (12.5)-KC1 (1)	dissolved
2	Acetonitrile	Mg (ClO ₄) ₂ (12.5)- KCl (1)	dissolved
3	N,N-Dimethylformamide	KSCN (12.5) - (CH ₃) ₄ NC1 (.5)	dissolved
4	N,N-Dimethylformamide	Mg(ClO ₄) ₂ (12.5)- (CH ₃) ₄ NCl (.5)	ppt: on N_2H_4 addn. (suspension)
5	Propylene Carbonate	KSCN (12.5)-KC1 (1)	dissolved
6	Propylene Carbonate	Mg(ClO ₄) ₂ (12.5)- KCl (1)	dissolved
7	Pyridine	KSCN (12.5)-KCl (1)	Saturated solution
8	Pyridine	Mg(C104)2 (12.5)- KC1 (1)	saturated solution (suspension)

4. <u>Cathodic Reduction of Dinitrogen Tetroxide in Nonaqueous Organic Solvents</u>

The cathodic reduction of N_2O_4 was studied in an H-type cell with a fine glass frit separating the anode and cathode compartments. The working electrode was a 1 cm² area of platinized platinum on stainless steel; the dummy electrode was platinum. The anode compartment contained only electrolyte (e.g., 25 g Mg(ClO₄)₂ per 500 ml solvent). Half-cell potentials were measured with reference to a Ag/AgCl electrode via a Luggin capillary. The Ag/AgCl electrode was prepared by anodizing a silver wire in 0.1N HCl for 30 minutes at 0.4 ma. The electrode was immersed into the Luggin assembly containing a saturated solution of $(CH_3)_4NCl$ and AgCl in the solvent.

Voltages were recorded at open circuit and at increasing current loads up to the point where the potential decrease became very rapid. The cathodic reduction of lM N_2O_4 in acetonitrile (AN) and N_1N_2 -dimethyl-formamide (N_1N_2 -DMF) containing M_2 (Clo_4) was studied in this fashion.

The voltage-current relationships (Table 32) measured for 1 and 2M N₂O₄ in 10% Mg(ClO₄)₂-acetonitrile at 0°C were identical, indicating polarization was probably mostly activation polarization. Tests of 2M N₂O₄ in saturated Mg(ClO₄)₂-DMF at 0°C and in 10% Mg(ClO₄)₂-DMF at 20°C are almost identical but show slightly higher polarization than 2M N₂O₄ in acetonitrile electrolyte. The perchlorate salted out at 0°C in DMF and the solution was bright blue, probably caused by a complex of N2O4 with DMF. Complexes of acetonitrile with N2O4 at low temperatures are known (ref. 16). Although no reference to the N2O4-DMF complex has been found in the literature, the changes in appearance of DMF on addition of N₂O₄, first, a complete discoloration, of N2O4, second, a bright blue color, and third, the normal dark green color, indicate complex formation. The complex is probably present in greater concentration at 0°C than at 20°C. Since the discharge characteristics of the system are the same at O and 20°C, the presence of the complex probably does not affect activation polarization.

Electrolyte (10% $Mg(C1O_4)_2$ -acetonitrile) containing no fuel or oxidant did not maintain 1 ma.

Current-voltage relationships for the reduction of N_2O_4 in anhydrous AN and DMF are presented in Figure 3^{14} along with measurements conducted after the addition of successive increments of water.

It is apparent that electrodes do not polarize as rapidly in the AN-Mg(ClO₄)₂ electrolyte as in the N,N-DMF electrolyte, and that the AN is less affected by added water. Each increment of water added increased the molarity of the solution with respect to water by 1.1, so that the final run (6 vol-% $\rm H_2O$) corresponded to about a 3M $\rm H_2O$ solution. This solution, when AN was used as solvent, decreased by about 10% in potential, while there was very little change in polarization. N.N-DMF, however, was more adversely affected by water.

Since N_2O_4 reacted rapidly with KSCN in either solvent, the choice of electrolyte for the N_2H_4 half cell is narrowed to $Mg(ClO_4)_2$. Some difficulty was recently encountered in the anodic oxidation of $lM\ N_2H_4$ solution in either AN- or DMF-containing $Mg(ClO_4)_2$. Although the potentials of the half cells are as determined earlier, the current carrying capacities in recent experiments have been very low.

CATHODIC POLARIZATION OF N2O4 ELECTRODES IN ORGANIC ELECTROLYTES Table 32

•	2M N2O4 in DMF-10% Mg(ClO4)2 at 20°C	1.22, 1.07	1.18, 1.07	1.12, -	1.07, 0.97	0.92, 0.80	0.63, 0.53	1	-0.48,-0.56	0.81	-1.32,-1.32	1
tentist mar we row (up) for / at setting	$\frac{113.4 \text{MOI}_{2}}{2 \text{M}} \frac{\text{AN OF LMF}_{2}}{10} \frac{\text{VOL}_{2}}{\text{DMF-sat}}$ $\frac{\text{Mg}(\text{ClO}_{4})_{2}}{\text{Mg}(\text{ClO}_{4})_{2}} \frac{\text{at } 0^{\circ}\text{C}}{\text{C}}$	1.24, 1.08	1.22, 1.05	1.17, 1.01	1.12, 0.96	1.00, 0.82	ı	0.54, 0.59	-0.10,-0.11		-1.33,-1.57	1
Dottertial was Ast/Asc1	2M N204 1n AN-10% Mg(C104)2 at 0°C	1.12, 1.02	1.09, 0.94	1.05, 0.90	1.02, 0.87	0.93, -	0.77, 0.64	1	0.32, 0.24	-0.01,-0.07	1.68	
1,000 about 1,000	1M N ₂ O ₄ 1n AN-10% Mg (C1O ₄) ₂ at 0°C	1.16, 1.07	1.09, 1.03	1.07, 1.00	1.02, 0.97	06.0 , 46.0	0.79, 0.70	1 1	0.48, 0.41	1	0.29	-1.44 -1.58
	Current Density ma/cm ²	0	н	М	īΟ	10	50	25	50	75	100	200

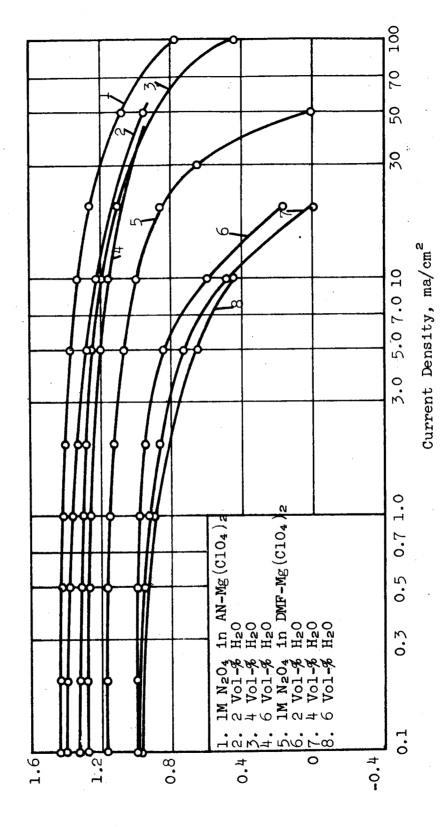


Figure 34. Cathodic Polarization of N2O4 Electrodes

Half-Cell Potential, (v) after 2 Minutes vs Ag/Agcl

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VIII. APPENDIXES

A. AQUEOUS SYSTEMS

1. Thermodynamic Sample Calculations

a. Free Energy of Formation of Liquid Hydrazine

$$\Delta F_{\rm f}^{\circ}$$
 liq = $\Delta F_{\rm f}^{\circ}$ gas at 14.35 mm i.e., vapor pressure of hydrazine at 298°K = 14.35 mm

$$\Delta F_{f}^{\circ}$$
 gas 1 atm - ΔF_{f}° gas 14.35 mm = ΔH $\begin{vmatrix} 760 \text{ mm} \\ -T\Delta S \\ 14.35 \text{ mm} \end{vmatrix}$ 760

$$\Delta H = T \Delta S + \int_{14.35}^{760} Vdp$$

so,
$$\Delta F$$
 $760 = \int_{14.35}^{760} = RTln \frac{760}{14.35} = 2.35 \text{ Kcal/mole}$

$$\triangle F_{f}^{\circ}$$
 gas 1 atm = 37.89, so $\triangle F_{f}^{\circ}$ liq = $\triangle F_{f}^{\circ}$ gas 14.35 mm = 37.89-2.35 = 35.54 Kcal/mole

b. Heat of Formation from Heat of Combustion

Monomethylhydrazine

$$CH_3NHNH_2 + 5/2 O_2 \longrightarrow N_2 + 3H_2O + CO_2 \qquad \Delta H_R = -311.711 \text{ Kcal}$$

$$3H_2O \longrightarrow 3H_2 + 3/2 O_2 \qquad \Delta H_R = 204.948 \text{ Kcal}$$

$$CO_2 \longrightarrow C + O_2 \qquad \Delta H_R = 94.060 \text{ Kcal}$$

Overall

$$N_2 + 3H_2 + C = CH_3NHNH_2$$
 $\Delta H_{f liq} = 12.703$ K cal/mole $\Delta H_{f gas}^{\circ} = \Delta H_{f liq}^{\circ} = 12.703 + 9.648 = 21.351$ K cal

c. Free Energy of Formation of Gaseous Monomethylhydrazine at latm and 298°K

$$\Delta F_f^o = \Delta H_f^o - T \Delta S$$

 $C + 3H_2 + N_2 \longrightarrow CH_3NHNH_2$

Entropy change = $\Delta S = 66.61 - 1.36-93.62-45.76 = -74.13$ tal/deg mole

$$\Delta F_f^{\circ}$$
 gas = ΔH_f° - ΔS = 21.351 - $\frac{(298)(-74.13)}{1000}$ = 43.441 Kcal/mole

d. Full-Cell Voltage

$$2N_2H_4 \longrightarrow 2N_2 + 8H^+ + 8e^-$$

$$N_2O_4 + 8H^+ + 8e^- \longrightarrow N_2 + 4H_2O$$

Overall reaction involves 8e-

$$2N_2H_4 + N_2O_4 \longrightarrow 3N_2 + 4H_2O$$

Mol wt =
$$2(32) + 92 = 156$$
 grams

Reaction
$$\Delta F$$
: 2(35.54) + 23.491 = 3(0) + 4(-56.69) $-\Delta F$ cell

$$\Delta$$
F cell =-226.76-23.49-71.08 = -321.33 Kcal =-1,334,766 joules

-1,334,766 joules = -nFE, n = 8, so
$$E = \frac{1,334,766}{8x96,500} = 1.74volts$$

$$\Delta F_{per gram} = 321.33 / 156 = 2.06 \frac{Kcal}{g} = 1086.5 \frac{watt-hr}{lb}$$

e. \triangle H_{f363}, S₃₆₃, \triangle F_{f363} of Dinitrogen Tetroxide

Specific Heat of Dinitrogen Tetroxide Cp, cal/deg/mole	T°, K
15.72	300
16.60	350
17.39	400

These data are assumed fitted by $C_p = a + bT + cT^2$

so,

$$15.72 = a + 300b + 9 \times 10^{4}c$$

 $16.60 = a + 350b + 12.25 \times 10^{4}c$
 $17.39 = a + 400b + 16 \times 10^{4}c$

Solving for a, b, and c gives:

$$C_{p} = 8.55 + 2.93 \times 10^{-2} \text{T} - 0.18 \times 10^{-4} \text{T}^{2}$$

$$(H_{363} - H_{298})_{N_{2}O_{4}} = \int_{298}^{363} C_{p} dT = 8.55T + \frac{2.93}{2} \times 10^{-2} \text{ T}^{2} - \frac{0.18}{3} \times 10^{-4} \text{T}^{3}$$

= 1,054 cal/mole = 1.054 Kcal/mole

$$2 \times (H_{363} - H_{298})_{02} = 0.921 \text{ Kcal}$$

$$(H_{363}-H_{298})_{N_2} = 0.453 \text{ Kcal}$$

Therefore,

$$\Delta H_{f})_{363} - \Delta H_{f})_{298} = \sum n(H_{363} - H_{298}) = -0.321 \text{ Kcal}$$

so,

$$\Delta H_{f_{363}} = 2.309 - 0.321 = 1.988 \text{ Kcal/mol}$$

$$S_{T} = S_{298} + \int_{298}^{363} \frac{C_{p}dT}{T} = 72.73 + \left[8.551nT + 2.93 \times 10^{-2}T - \frac{0.18}{2} \times 10^{-4}T^{2}\right]_{298}^{T}$$

$$= 16.0877 + 8.55 \ln T + 2.93 \times 10^{-2} \text{T-} 0.09 \times 10^{-4} \text{T}^{2}$$

$$S_{363} = 75.9348$$

$$F_{363} - F_{298} = -\int_{298}^{363} SdT = -\left[16.0877T + 8.55\{TlnT-T\} + 1.465 \times 10^{-2}T^{2} - 363\right]$$

$$0.3 \times 10^{4}T^{3} = -4.830 \text{ Kcal}$$

$$\Delta F_{f})_{363} = \Delta F_{f})_{298} + (F_{363} - F_{298})_{N_{2}O_{4}} - (F_{363} - F_{298})_{N_{2}+2O_{2}} = 28.146$$

f. Internal Consistency: Sample Calculation for H2O at 90°C

(1) Between Products and Reactants

$$\triangle F_f = \triangle H_f - T \triangle S_f$$
 or $T \triangle S = \triangle H_f - \triangle F_f$

$$\Delta S_{f} = S_{H_{2}O} \text{ gas - } 1/2S_{O_{2}} - S_{H_{2}} = -11.005 \text{ cal/deg/mole}$$

since
$$90^{\circ}\text{C} = 363.16^{\circ}\text{K}$$
 T $\Delta \text{S} = \frac{-11.005 \times 363.16}{1000} = -3.996$ kcal/mole $\Delta \text{H}_{\hat{\mathbf{f}}} = -57.929$ $-\Delta \text{F}_{\hat{\mathbf{f}}} = 53.933$

so $\Delta H_f - \Delta F_f = -3.996$ check of $T\Delta S$

(2) Between Gas and Liquid Phase

 $F_{liq}-F_{gas} = \Delta F_{fliq}-\Delta F_{fgas} \Delta F = -.263 \text{ Kcal/mole}$

likewise

$$T\Delta S = \Delta H - \Delta F = -9.552$$

$$\Delta S = -26.296 \text{ cal/deg/mole}$$

$$T \triangle S = \frac{-26.296 \times 363.16}{1000} = -9.550 \text{ Kcal/mole}$$

g. Calculation of Free Energy Loss Due to Solution of N2H4 in H2O

(1) Calculation of Activity Coefficients

Assumption: vapor phases behave ideally

Equations:

$$p_{a} = \gamma_{a} x_{a} P_{a} \tag{1}$$

$$\ln \gamma_{a} = \frac{C_{a}}{\left[1 + \frac{C_{a}x_{a}}{C_{a}x_{b}}\right]^{z}}, \quad \ln \gamma_{b} = \frac{C_{b}}{\left[1 + \frac{C_{a}x_{b}}{C_{a}x_{a}}\right]^{z}}$$
 (2)

These are the Van Laar equations. (ref. 33)

$$Tln\gamma = constant$$
 (3)

This is the Gilliland equation (ref. 33)

Symbols:

p = partial pressure

P = vapor pressure of the pure liquid

 γ = activity coefficient

x = mole fraction in the liquid

T = absolute temperature

C = constant

 $a = N_2H_4$

 $b = H_2O$

The activity coefficients are easily obtained from azeotropic data. Knowledge of these coefficients then permits calculation of the constants in the Van Laar equations.

Calculation:

At 560 mm and lll°C the azeotrope is $x_{N_2H_4} = x_a = 0.55$

$$P_a = 720 \text{ mm}$$

$$P_b = 111 \text{ mm}$$

$$\gamma_{a} = \frac{0.55 \times 560}{0.55 \times 720} = 0.78$$

$$\gamma_{\rm b} = \frac{560}{1111} = 0.505$$

Substituting in the Van Laar equation

$$\ln 0.78 = \frac{c_a}{[1 + 1.22 \ c_a/c_b]^2}$$

$$\ln 0.505 = \frac{C_{a}}{[1 + 0.85 C_{b}/C_{a}]^{2}}$$

Solving the equation:
$$C_a = -2.94$$

 $C_b = -1.36$

85 wt-% hydrazine hydrate is 54.5 wt-% N₂H₄

$$\frac{x_{\text{N}_2\text{H}_4}}{x_{\text{H}_2\text{O}}} = \frac{x_{\text{a}}}{x_{\text{b}}} = \frac{54.5}{32} \times \frac{18}{44.5} = 0.69$$

$$\ln \gamma_b = \frac{-1.36}{[1 + (0.5)(1.45)]^2}$$
 $\gamma_b = 0.633 \text{ at}$ $x_b = 0.45 \text{ at } 111^{\circ}\text{C}$

at
$$90^{\circ}C = 363^{\circ}K = T$$

$$ln\gamma_{90}^{\circ} = \frac{384}{363} ln\gamma_{111}^{\circ} c$$
 [see equation (3)]

So, at 90°C:
$$\gamma_a = 0.577$$

$$\gamma_b = 0.617$$

$$P_a = 330 \text{ mm}$$

$$P_b = 526 \text{ mm}$$

$$p_a = 0.577 \left(\frac{0.69}{1.69} \right) 330 = 78 \text{ mm}$$

$$p_b = 0.617 \left(\frac{1.45}{2.45}\right) = 526 = 192 \text{ mm}$$

(2) Calculation of Free Energy Loss

This information can now be used to calculate the free energy difference between pure hydrazine liquid at 90°C and 330 mm, and the 85% hydrate at 90°C and $\rm p_{N_2H_4}=78$ mm.

$$F_{78mm} - F_{330mm} - \int_{330}^{78} vdp = RT ln(\frac{78}{330})$$
 (4)
= 1.987 x 363 x (-1.442)
= -1.040 cal =-1.04 Kcal

This free energy loss represents loss in electrical potential.

$$\%$$
 decrease = $\frac{1.04 \times 100}{135.5}$ = 0.77%

h. Calculation of Free Energy Loss Due to Dissociation of N2O4

$$\Delta F = \mu_{NO_2} - \mu_{N_2O_4}$$

where μ is free energy per mole

$$\mu_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_4} = \mu_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_4}^{\circ} + \text{RTlnP}_{\text{N}_2\text{O}_4}$$

$$u_{NO_2} = \mu_{NO_2} + RTInP_{NO_2}$$

Let $x = fraction of one mole of <math>N_2O_4$ that dissociates.

Then:
$$1 - x = \text{moles } N_2O_4$$

 $2x = \text{moles } NO_2$
 $1 + x = \text{total moles}$

Assume total pressure = 1 atmosphere

$$P_{N_2O_4} = \frac{1 - x}{1 + x}$$

$$\begin{split} P_{NO_2} &= \frac{2x}{1+x} \\ K_{eq} &= \frac{(P_{NO_2})^2}{P_{N_2O_4}} = \frac{4 \ x^2}{1-x^2} = 8.9 \ (\text{from Figure 1}) \\ &= 12.9x^2 = 8.9 \\ &= 0.831 \\ P_{N_2O_4} &= \frac{1-x}{1+x} = 0.0923 \ \text{atm} \\ P_{NO_2} &= \frac{2x}{1+x} = 0.9077 \ \text{atm} \\ -\Delta F^\circ &= RTlnK_{atm} = (1.9872)(363)(1n8.9) = 1577 \ \text{cal/mole} \\ \text{What is free energy change for:} \\ &= 1 \ \text{mole N}_2O_4 \longrightarrow 2x \ \text{moles NO}_2 + (1-x) \ \text{moles N}_2O_4 \ \text{at 90°C}. \\ &= \Delta F = (1-x)\mu_{N_2O_4} + 2x\mu_{NO_2} - \mu_{N_2O_4}^\circ \\ &= 0.831(-1577) + (1.662)(1.9872)(363)(-0.097) + 4 \end{split}$$

$$\Delta F = x \Delta F^{\circ} + 2xRTlnP_{NO_2} + (1-x)RTlnP_{N_2O_4}$$

$$= 0.831(-1577) + (1.662)(1.9872)(363)(-0.097) + (0.169)(1.9872)(363)(-2.39)$$

$$= -1310 - 116 - 291$$

$$= -1717 \text{ cal/mole} = -1.717 \text{ Kcal/mole at } 90^{\circ}\text{C}$$

% decrease in voltage =
$$\frac{1.72 \times 100}{135.5}$$
 = 1.27%

i. I²R Loss Necessary to Sustain Cell Temperature

Consider the electrochemical reaction:

$$N_2H_4_{lig} + N_2O_{4gas} \longrightarrow N_2 + 2NO + 2H_2O_{gas}$$

Conditions: 90°C, 1 atm.

 $\Delta H = -86.92$ Kcal per 4 equivalents

 $\Delta F = -135.61$ Kcal per 4 equivalents

-T \triangle S = -48.69 Kcal per 4 equivalents = 36% of \triangle F

= -12.17 Kcal/per equivalent

If $-T \triangle S = I^2R$, what is R/cm^2 ?

Assume I = 0.1 amp/cm² = $\frac{0.1 \text{ coulomb}}{\text{sec-cm}^2}$

$$\frac{\left(\frac{0.1 \text{ coulomb}}{\text{sec-cm}^2}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{1}{96,500} \frac{\text{eq}}{\text{coulomb}}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{12.17 \text{ Kcal}}{\text{eq}}\right) \cdot \left(\frac{4,186 \text{ watt sec}}{\text{Kcal}}\right)}{\text{cm}^2}$$

$$= 0.0528 \frac{\text{watt}}{\text{cm}^2}$$

$$0.0528 = I^2R \qquad I^2 = 0.01$$

$$\vdots \qquad R = 5.28 \frac{\text{ohm}}{\text{cm}^2}$$

J. Voltage Decrease and Heat Generated Due to Spontaneous Decomposition of Hydrazine at Catalyst Surface

Equation:

$$N_2H_4 \longrightarrow N_2 + 2H_2$$

 $\Delta H_{\text{decomp}} = \frac{-12.278 \text{ Kcal}}{4 \text{ equivalents}} = \frac{-3.07 \text{ Kcal}}{\text{equivalent}}$ (exotherm)

The subsequent reaction is:

$$2H_2 + N_2O_4 \longrightarrow 2NO + 2H_2O_{gas}$$
 at 90°C and 1 atm $\Delta F_{H_2O} = 2(-53.933)$ $S_{H_2O} = 2(46.767)$ $S_{NO} = 2(51.747)$ $-S_{H_2} = -2(32.57)$ $-\Delta F_{N_2O_4} = -28.146$ $-S_{N_2O_4} = -75.935$ $\Delta F = -94.958 \frac{Kcal}{4 eq} = -nFE T \Delta S = \frac{(55.95)(363.16)}{1000} = -1000$

5 20.319 Kcal

$$E = 1.03 \text{ volts}$$

The net endothermic heat effect/4 eq. = $T \Delta S + \Delta H = 20.319 - 12.278$ = 8.041 Kcal/4 eq.

$$\frac{\text{T}\Delta S + \Delta \text{Hdecomp}}{\Delta F} = 8.467\%$$

$$\frac{0.1 \text{ coulomb}}{\text{sec cm}^2} \times \frac{1 \text{ equiv.}}{96,500 \text{ coulomb}} \times \frac{8.041 \text{ Kcal}}{4 \text{ equiv.}} \times \frac{4,186 \text{ watt sec}}{\text{Kcal}} = I^2 R$$

$$0.00871 = I^2R$$

R = 0.871 ohms/cm²

% Decrease in voltage =
$$\frac{1.47 - 1.03}{1.47}$$
 x 100 = 29.9%

2. Electrode Preparation

a. Electrochemically Plated Catalysts

The electrodes were solid 1/8-inch cylinders of the various base metals, tightly wrapped with Teflon tape. The bottom part was bared to expose a total area of 1 cm², which was plated according to the following procedures.

(1) Platinum

(a) On Carbon

Plate for 2 minutes at 30 ma/cm 2 with 3% chloroplatinic acid solution containing 0.3% lead acetate.

(b) On Stainless Steel (SS)

Pt/SS electrodes are now produced by first plating for 4 minutes at 5 ma/cm² with Rhodex plating solution, and then for 2 minutes at 20 ma/cm² with 3% chloroplatinic acid solution.

(c) On Nickel

Plate for 4 minutes at 5 ma/cm² with Rhodex plating solution, then plate for 2 minutes at 20 ma/cm² with the 3% chloroplatinic acid solution.

(2) <u>Gold</u>

(a) On Carbon

Plate for 2 minutes at 20 ma/cm² with the 3% gold chloride plating solution (HAuCl₃·3H₂O).

(b) On Stainless Steel and Nickel

Plate for 4 minutes at 5 ma/cm² with Rhodex plating solution, and then for 2 minutes at 20 ma/cm² with 3% gold chloride solution.

(3) Rhodium

For all substrates plate for 4 minutes at 5 ma/cm² with Rhodex plating solution, and then for 2 minutes at 20 ma/cm² with the 0.1M rhodium plating solution.

b. Chemically Precipitated Catalyst Electrodes

Porous FC-14 carbon cubes 1/2 cm on an edge were used as the substrate upon which the catalyst was plated. The particular salts of the catalyst or catalyst combination were dissolved in distilled water at specific concentration as outlined in the following procedure:

- 1. The carbon cubes (uncatalyzed) were washed with distilled water and placed under reduced pressure in a vacuum oven at 80°C to dry.
- 2. Immediately the cubes were weighed on a precision analytical balance in the dry state.
- 3. The cubes were then impregnated with distilled water, under reduced pressure and a lot of 25 were weighed.
- 4. The number of ml of H_2O taken up by the cubes is calculated and from this value the catalyst-salt solution is prepared in such concentrations as to leave the required weight of catalyst black in the carbon cube. In some cases when salts have a limited solubility, two or more separate impregnations and reductions must be made.
- 5. The impregnated electrode was dropped in a 1% NaBH $_4$ solution, which rapidly reduced them to the metal.
- 6. The reduced electrode was dried at 80°C in a vacuum to remove water, and reduce any nonreduced catalyst. When dry the electrode was weighed to find the increase in weight due to catalyst. The per cent catalyst was then calculated.

The carbon cubes had a fine hole drilled in by the Pure Carbon Company, of the right size to make a force fit to a platinum wire which was used as the electrical contact lead.

c. Porous Teflon Vapor Electrodes Preparation

Figure A-1 shows the best method of construction found to date for the Teflon vapor electrode.

Item

Description

- 1. Tantalum holder chosen for compatibility with reactants and electrolytes which are expected to be used.
- 2. Teflon gasket 1 mil thick treated with sodium in liquid NH_3 to make it easily adhered to for reduction of side leakage.
- 3. Electrolytically perforated 316 stainless steel plate 4 mils thick containing 65% open area, used to retain catalyst before impregnation, and as current collector for catalyst when in use.
- 4. Catalyst powder plus 10% Teflon powder for binding purposes.
- 5. Porous Teflon membrane.
- 6. Coarse mesh tantalum screen used to impart mechanical stability and to prevent the porous Teflon from sticking to the stainless steel block used for applying pressure.
- 7. Stainless steel block for pressure application.

Components 1, 2 and 3 are preformed at 10,000 psi pressure, using a stainless steel block with a raised die the same diameter as the exposed electrode surface. This forms a special pocket for catalyst to be contained. The catalyst is then evenly spread into this pocket, and components 5, 6 and 7 are put into place. A clean platinum plate is used in the press at the catalyst-stainless steel side of the electrode. The assembly is then pressed at a specific pressure and temperature for a specific time.

3. Experimental Apparatus

a. Half Cells

Three designs of half cell: A, B, and C, were used for the polarization studies. Type A was a general purpose cell (Figure A-2) for soluble or liquid reactants. Type B was a gas cell (Figure A-3) used when porous flow-through electrodes are desirable or required. Type C was used for porous Teflon vapor diffusion electrodes.

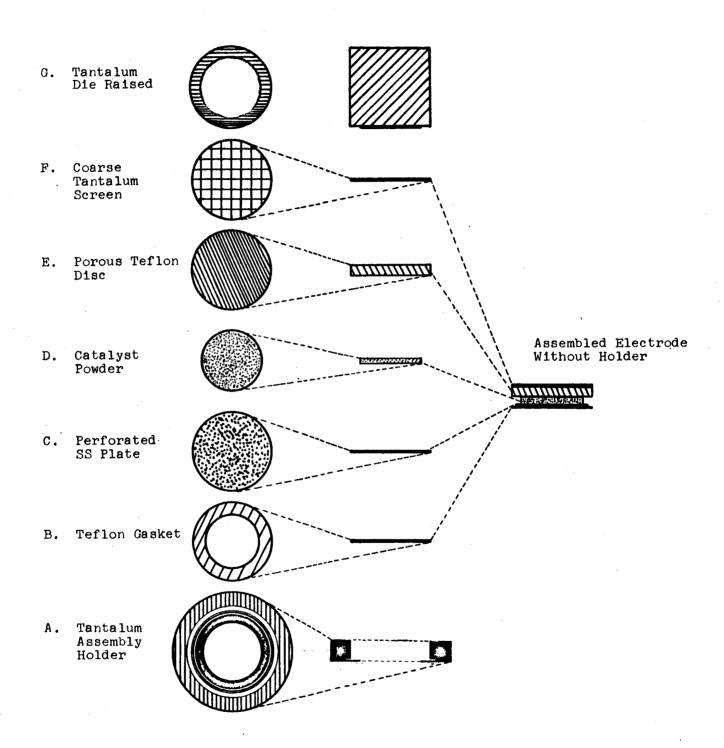


Figure A-1. Exploded View of Porous Teflon Vapor Diffusion Electrode

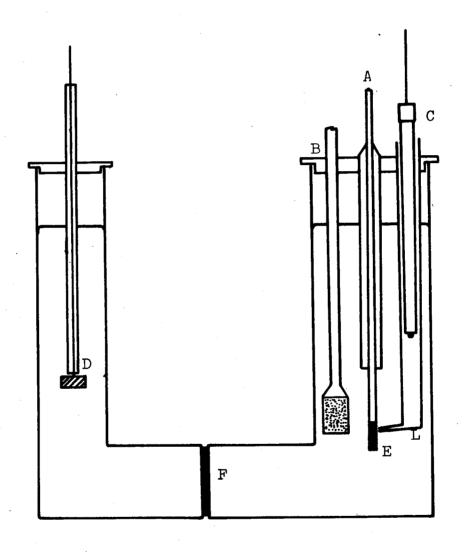


Figure A-2. H-Cell for Short Term Polarization Studies

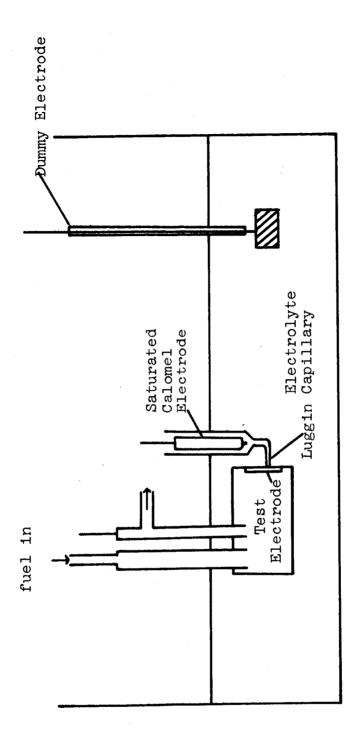


Figure A-3. Gas Half Cell

(1) Type A

Type A was a Pyrex H-cell with Teflon stoppers supporting the dummy electrode, D, the working electrode, E, and the Luggin capillary, L. A reference electrode (C) was immersed in the well above the Luggin capillary. A glass frit (F) prevented gross mixing between the anode and cathode compartments. Provisions (B) were made to stir and purge the system. The working electrode was a cylinder of the base material insulated with a tightly wrapped Teflon tape for most of its length. Both ends were bare; the top for making the electrical connection, the bottom for supporting the catalyst. The cells were immersed in a thermostatically controlled water bath. The cell was also used for tests with precipitated electrode catalyst.

(2) Type B

Type B cell consisted of a Teflon holder for the porous electrode, a Luggin capillary, L, and a dummy electrode, D. One side of the electrode faced the electrolyte; the other side was exposed to the gas stream (Figure A-3). The excess gas and the gaseous reaction products are exhausted through the gas outlet. The static pressure on the electrode gas side can be adjusted by a bypass valve (not shown). It is possible, then, to establish a balanced operation without flooding the electrode or bubbling the gas through it.

Figure A-4 shows the construction details of the electrode holder.

(3) <u>Type C</u>

Figure A-5 shows system used for testing of half-cell porous Teflon vapor electrodes. It features separate glass compartments for fuel or oxidant in the pure state, and for the electrolyte used. Between the two compartments, and connecting them is the tantalum holder into which is built the Teflon vapor electrode. A Kordesch-Marko bridge is always used with this particular system due to distance of Luggin from the test electrode.

b. <u>Testing Apparatus</u>

Three types of testing apparatus were used for half cell measurements, all manually operated.

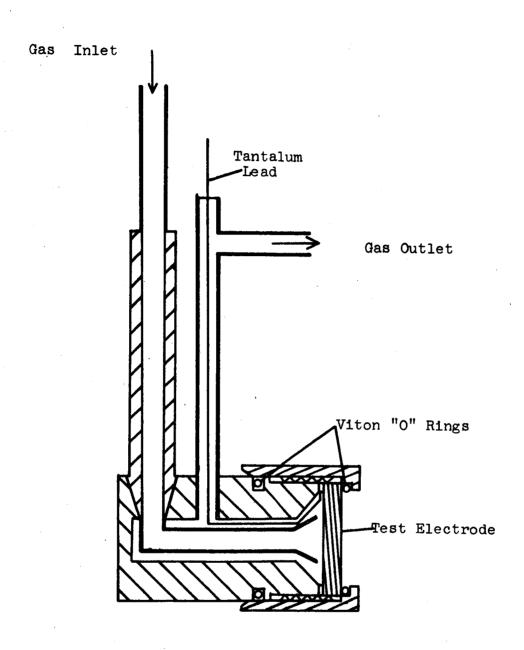
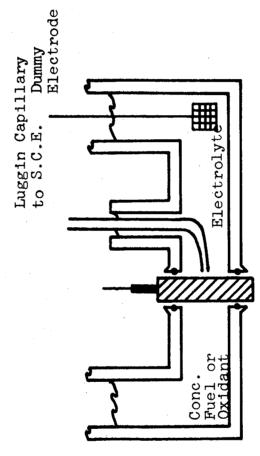


Figure A-4. All-Teflon Gas Cell Electrode Holder



Tantalum Porous Teflon Electrode Assembly

Figure A-5.-Half Cell Construction for Testing Porous Teflon Vapor Diffusion Electrodes

(1) Manual Apparatus

Figure A-6 is a schematic drawing of the manually operated device employed in half cell studies. The apparatus consisted of two five-decade resistance boxes and the relative switching circuits. The current through each of the two cells can be varied independently and accurately measured by a precision milliammeter. The potential vs the reference cells are measured with high resistance electrometers.

(2) Constant Current Programable Power Supply

The second method for half cell polarization tests was a Harrison Laboratories Model 6200A constant current power supply. It can deliver, over time ranges, up to 1.5 amperes with less than 0.5 ma ac ripple. It has a voltage output maximum of 40 volts up to 750 ma, and 20 volts on the 1.5-ampere ranges. In addition the instrument can be programed at the supply output with a 10-turn precision resistor, thus gaining very fine control of current in manual polarization tests.

(3) Kordesch-Marko (K-M) Bridge

Two of these instruments were built for use in polarization studies where IR drop might not be able to be easily eliminated by Luggin capillaries. The circuit diagram of the bridge in use in our laboratory is shown in Figure A-7. It is essentially a simplified version of the original bridge as reported in the <u>Journal of Electrochemical Society</u> by its developers (ref. 20).

4. Analytical Apparatus

There are three main features to the cell design and manifold system pictured in Figures A-8 and A-9. These are:

- (1) Take-off for gas volume measurements.
- (2) Take-off for gas sample collection, or direct connection to VPC.
- (3) Take-off for liquid samples.

The main problem associated with these functions is maintaining an air-tight system. Volume is measured by collecting gas from the gas outlet tube, with the manifold set so that stopcock 1 diverts the gas to a volume measurement apparatus consisting of a graduated gas collection buret with water as the atmospheric balance. When a gas sample is to be collected, the gas inlet system sweeps

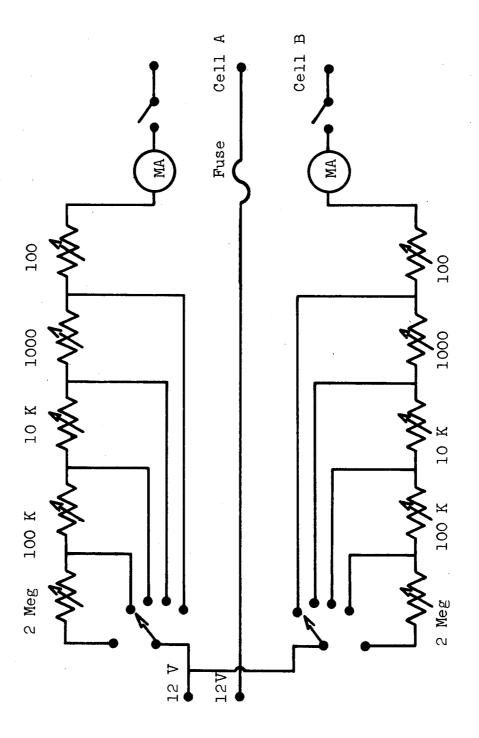


Figure A-6. Schematic of the Manually Operated Testing Apparatus

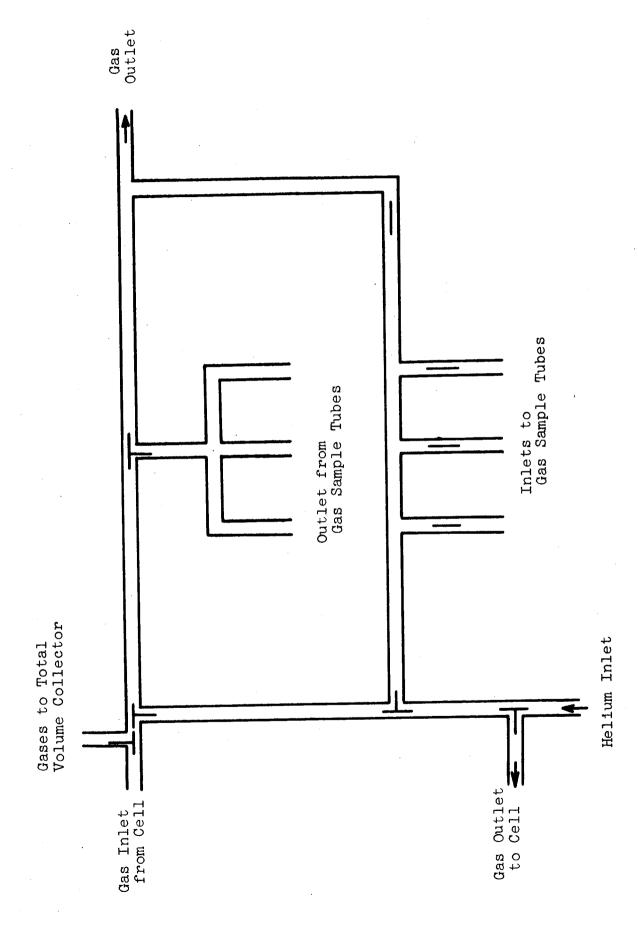


Figure A-9 Analytical Control System

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helium at such a rate as to leave 10 to 50% of the product gas in the collection buret. The manifold is then set to allow gas to fill the gas sample tube. Liquid samples are obtained with a syringe through the rubber plug on the capillary tubing. At all times a slight positive pressure is kept on the cell, either by a helium sweep or with water pressure when volume measurements are being made. The manifold system also allows flushing of the cell and manifold system before starting test, and direct flushing of just the manifold system or individual gas sample tubes at any time without involving the cell. Also the VPC can be directly connected to the gas outlet on the manifold for continual monitoring of the gas produced.

The tops of the liquid sample capillary, the electrode, the calomel, and the Luggin capillary are sealed with pressure-sensitive Teflon tape. No air leaks have been detected, even with NO gas evolution, which would react to turn brown with oxygen. The dummy or counterelectrode is vented to the atmosphere to prevent pressure buildups from forcing material from the dummy to the test compartments. Some diffusion occurs in spite of this, and the dummy compartment solution is analyzed along with the test compartment solution.

The electrochemical features of the cell otherwise are the same as the H cell described in Figure A-2.

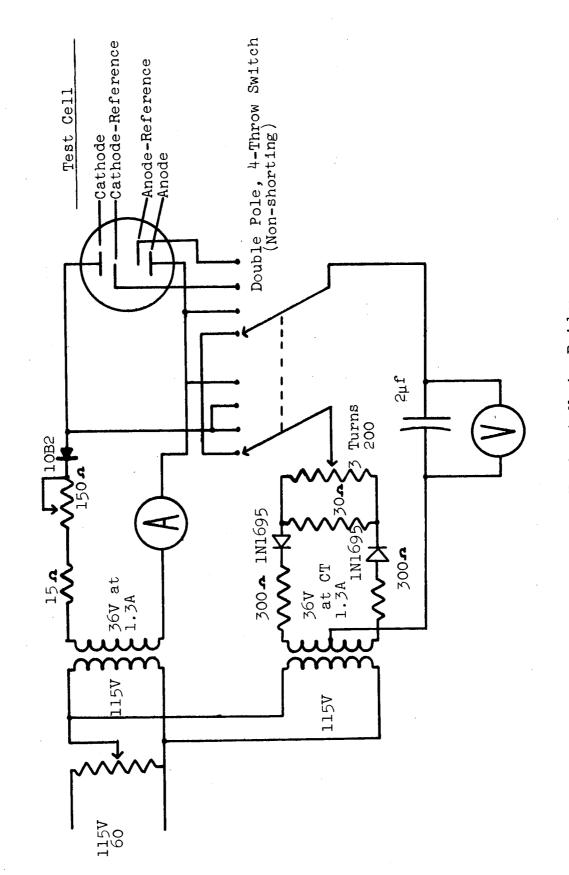


Figure A-7 Kordesch-Marko Bridge

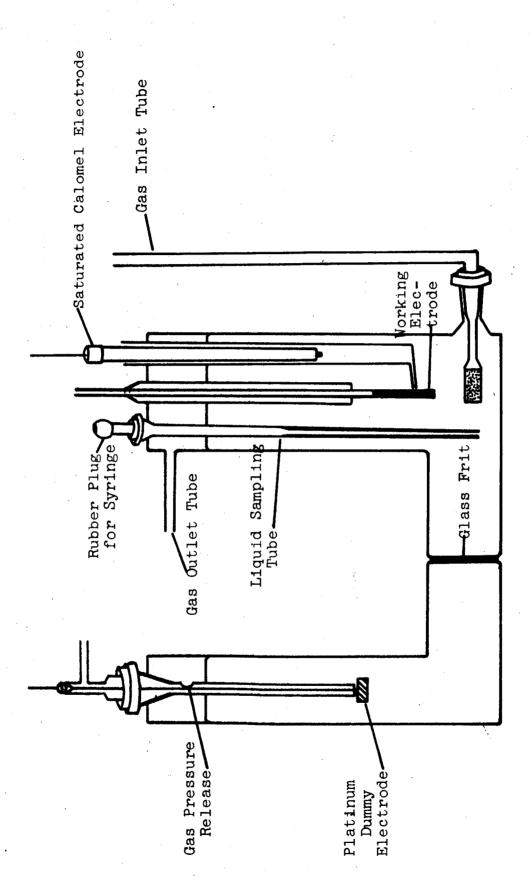


Figure A-8 Analytical Cell

B. ANHYDROUS HYDROGEN FLUORIDE SYSTEMS

1. Preparation of Solid Platinum Electrodes for Use in Fluoride Solutions

Rectangular electrodes, 0.5 cm by 1.0 cm, were cut from 0.005-cm thick platinum foil. A lead wire of 0.05-cm diameter platinum was spot welded to the foil. The foil was degreased in ethylene trichloride vapor and immersed in hot aqua regia until the surface had an etched appearance. After washing in distilled water, the foil was electroplated in one of the following solutions at 20 ma/cm 2 for 2 minutes for each side:

Catalyst	Plating Solution
Platinum	3% H ₂ PtCl ₆ ·6H ₂ O with 0.03% Pb(OAc) ₂ ·3H ₂ O
Gold	3% HAuCl ₄ ·3H ₂ O
Rhodium	3% RhCl3 · xH2O (40% Rh)
Ruthenium	7% RuCl ₄ ·5H ₂ O (41% Ru)
Iridium	3% IrCl ₄ (48.3% Ir)

2. Preparation of Hydrazine Dihydrogen Fluoride

Anhydrous hydrazine (AH) reacted explosively with liquid anhydrous hydrogen fluoride (AHF) on direct mixing between -78 and 0°C. For this reason, the hydrazine dihydrogen fluoride (HDHF) salt, $N_2H_4\cdot 2HF$, was prepared for solution in AHF.

HDHF was synthesized by slowly mixing stoichiometric quantities of the aqueous reactants at 0°C. Excess water was removed by vacuum pumping, and the solid was dried over concentrated sulfuric acid in a vacuum desiccator for three days. The solubility of HDHF in AHF was 2.09 molar at 0°C and 3.13 molar between 15 and 20°C. Long, needle-like crystals precipitated from the latter solution when it was cooled to 0°C. The HDHF salt dissolved smoothly in both AHF and in molten KF·3HF for anodic polarization studies.

3. Chlorine Trifluoride Solutions in Anhydrous Hydrogen Fluoride

Solutions of CTF in AHF were prepared by direct mixing of the condensed liquids. The components were miscible in all proportions. CTF and AHF form an azeotropic mixture at about 65 mole-% AHF. (ref. 24). A 69% mole-% mixture of AHF in CTF had a vapor pressure of 645 mm Hg at 0°C.

Literature conductivity values are listed in Table 26 for the above system. These values compare very favorably with conductivities determined in our laboratory on an unrelated project.

The purity of the CTF was checked by comparing its vapor pressure to the theoretical value. The agreement was good.

Liquid hydrogen fluoride was used directly from commercial cylinders. CTF solutions in AHF are only slightly ionized ($HClF_4 = H^+ + ClF_4^-$), so salts such as sodium fluoride and potassium fluoride must be added to increase the conductivity. Solubilities of fluoride salts in AHF, given by Fredenhagen and Candenbach (ref. 25) and Jacke (ref. 26) are given in Table 33.

Table 33
SOLUBILITIES IN LIQUID HYDROGEN FLUORIDE

<u>Salt</u>	Solubility g salt/100 g HF	Temperature C	Reference
LiF	10.33 10.31 10.30	12.2 -3.3 -23.0	26
NaF	30.1 25.1 22.1	11.0 -9.8 -24.3	26
KF	38	0	25 .
Hg ₂ F ₂	0.877 0.811 0.789	11.8 -4.5 -22.5	26 .

4. Constant Current Polarization Sequence

The polarization sequence was (1) to record the open-circuit potential of the working electrode vs the Pb-PbF2 reference, (2) to polarize for two minutes (either anodically or cathodically) and to record the polarized potential, (3) to allow the cell to remain on open-circuit for one minute, and (4) then proceed with the next polarization at twice the current density of the previous polarization. This schedule was repeated until a polarization in excess of 0.5 volt from the original open-circuit potential occurred.

5. Reference Electrodes in Anhydrous Hydrogen Fluoride

When conducting electrode polarizing experiments by the half cell method, a stable and reproducible unpolarized electrode is required as a reference potential plateau. Koeber and DeVries (ref. 27) have demonstrated the silver, cadmium, and lead fluoride systems in anhydrous hydrogen fluoride (AHF). These electrodes, prepared by anodizing each of the metals in AHF, were used as references as was the hydrogen electrode.

a. Silver-Silver Fluoride Reference Electrode

A silver-silver fluoride reference electrode was prepared by anodizing a clean silver wire in a solution of 0.5M NaF in AHF at a current density of 12 ma/cm² for 5 minutes. Diffusion of oxidizing or reducing materials into the reference electrode compartment was minimized by enclosing the electrode in a Teflon tube with a 0.0l-inch hole for solution contact with the working electrode. Two electrodes prepared by this procedure had potentials within 5 mv of each other. After momentary cathodic or anodic polarization at 0.1 ma/cm², the electrodes returned to their original open-circuit potentials.

b. <u>Cadmium-Cadmium Fluoride Reference Electrode</u>

Cadmium-cadmium fluoride reference electrodes were prepared by a similar anodizing procedure, starting with the clean stick of cadmium metal. Since cadmium is the more active metal, it is preferred to silver as a reference electrode. Unlike silver ion, traces of cadmium ion that might diffuse to a hydrazine electrode would not be reduced and the electrode surface would be altered. Potentials of the above electrodes, compared with that of a hydrogen electrode in AHF are given in Table 34.

Table 34

POTENTIALS OF REFERENCE ELECTRODES IN ANHYDROUS HYDROGEN FLUORIDE 0.5 M IN NaF AT 3°C

	Potential,	Volts
Electrode	Assigned	Experimental
Hydrogen at Rhodinized Platinum	0.00	-
Cd/CdF ₂	-	-0.50
Ag/AgF	-	+0.05

c. <u>Lead-Lead Fluoride Reference Electrode</u>

In molten KF·3HF mixtures, the Pb-PbF2 electrode was used as a working reference. In this case a length of pure lead wire was anodized at 12 ma/cm² for 5 minutes. After both anodic and cathodic polarization at 0.1 ma/cm², the potential of the fluorinated lead electrode returned to the same open-circuit value. The potential of the lead-lead fluoride electrode was measured against that of the hydrogen-rhodium-palladium electrode (see Table 35), and polarization data in the KF·3HF melt were reported with reference to the hydrogen electrode. Lead is an active metal in the AHF-KF melts and, like cadmium, will not be reduced at the hydrogen electrode potential.

Table 35

POTENTIALS OF REFERENCE ELECTRODES IN MOLTEN KF.3HF AT 85°C

Potential, Volts

Electrode	Assigned	Experimental
Hydrogen at Rhodinized P	latinum 0.00	-
Pb/PbF2 21/2 HF	-	-0.32
Ag/AgF	-	-0.02

d. Hydrogen Reference Electrode

It is well known that palladium absorbs hydrogen until a saturation ratio of 0.69 atoms of hydrogen per atom of palladium is reached. At this concentration, the "gas-charged alloy" has the same potential as the platinized platinum electrode (ref. 28).

Two palladium electrodes were made by spot welding 0.001-inch palladium foil on platinum wire and mounting in a Teflon holder.

The potential of the hydrogen electrode in AHF solution in the AHF·KF melt was established by cathodically polarizing a palladium electrode at 5 ma/cm² for one hour and until the open-circuit potential of the electrode became steady. This steady hydrogen potential was recorded against a silver-silver fluoride and a cadmium-cadmium fluoride electrode. The metal reference electrodes were more convenient than the hydrogen electrode for polarization experiments, but polarization results are reported with reference to the hydrogen electrode in the AHF solution being investigated. Reference electrodes were separated from current-carrying electrodes by a porous Teflon disk with a O.Ol-inch hole as shown in Figure 25.

Palladium Membrane Electrodes in Anhydrous Hydrogen Fluoride

Solid palladium is an interesting electrode material for use as a potential reference or for the anodic oxidation of hydrogen gas or materials that can be reformed into hydrogen, such as hydrazine. The palladium serves the dual role of a conducting electrode and a solid separator between the fuel and oxidant compartments. The use of palladium as a hydrogen electrode has been reported by Hoare and Schuldiner (ref. 29), and a palladium-hydrogen anode in aqueous solution has been described by Oswin and Chodosh (ref. 30).

A 0.001-inch thick palladium foil was electroplated with rhodium on both sides and mounted in a Teflon holder. The assembly was immersed in liquid AHF at 3°C and hydrogen gas was purged through the electrode gas compartment as shown in Figure A-10. The potential of the palladium electrode as a function of purging time is shown in Figure The potential dropped suddenly during the first minute's purging to a plateau. After an hour's purging, the potential decreased to 0.50 volt positive to the lead-lead fluoride electrode. This behavior is similar to that reported by Flanagan and Lewis (ref. 31). The initial potential plateau corresponds to a partial hydrogen saturation and the formation of an "alpha" palladium-hydrogen phase. After complete saturation the electrode assumes the same potential as the hydrogen-platinized platinum electrode (ref. 32). The hydrogenpalladium electrode is of interest in AHF solutions both as an anode candidate and as a reference electrode for assigning potentials to other electrode systems.

The anodic and cathodic polarizations of the hydrogen-saturated palladium electrode in AHF at 3°C are shown in Figure A-12. An anodic current of about 10 ma/cm² could be carried with 0.5 volt polarization, while cathodic currents up to 50 ma/cm² could be carried with very little polarization. The limiting anodic current was low at 3°C, but subsequent work will be concerned with improving the palladium membrane as a fuel cell component.

C. NEW TECHNOLOGY

The reportable items considered to have been developed during the term of the contract are as follows:

- l. Method of fuel cell construction and operation using a porous Teflon electrode by which transmission of feedstocks to the catalytic electrode surface is limited to vapor phase. This development is described in the present Final Report. It is considered an invention: a patent disclosure has been submitted and a patent application is being prepared.
- 2. Method of heat transfer in which heat energy is absorbed from a low temperature (50-100°C) source by a fuel cell which operates with an endothermic electrochemical reaction, such as the electrochemical reaction of hydrazine with nitric acid or with dinitrogen tetroxide,

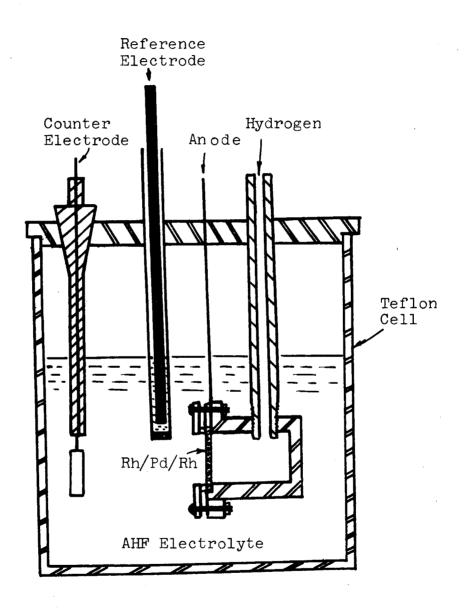
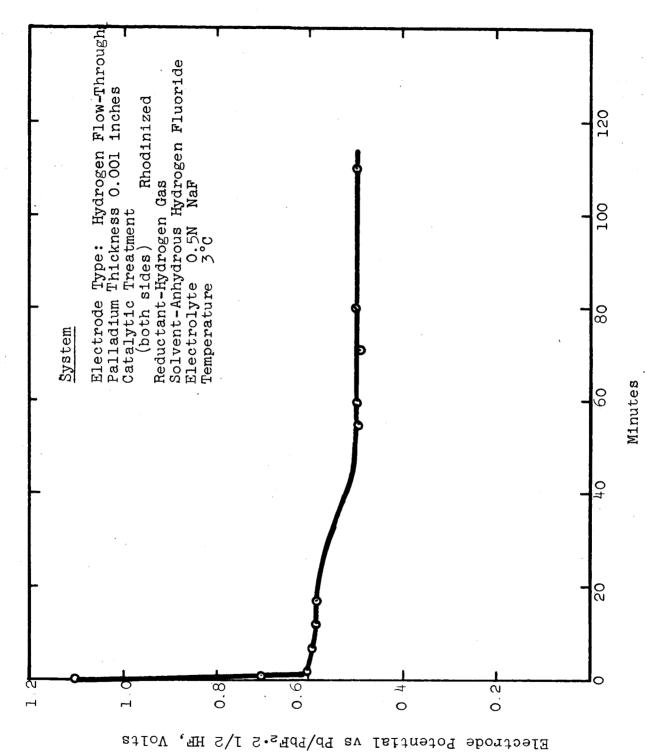
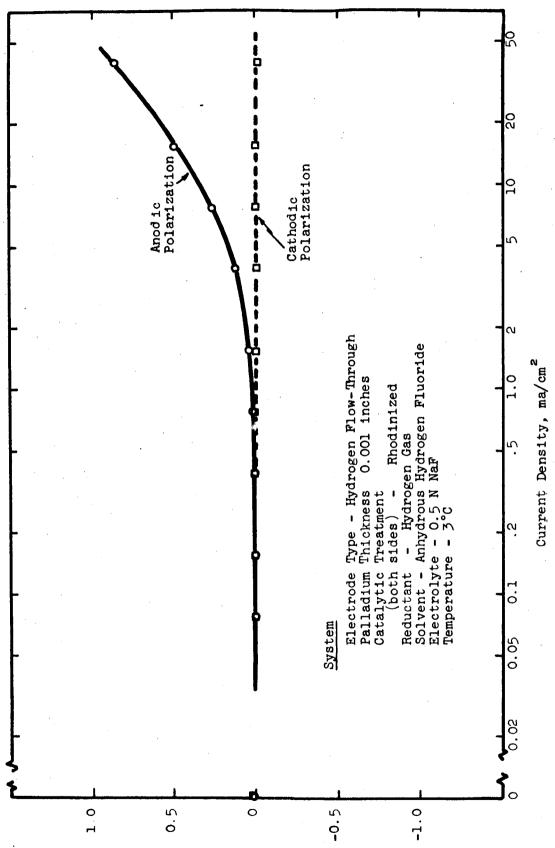


Figure A-10. Half Cell for Evaluating the Hydrogen-Palladium Anode in Anhydrous Hydrogen Fluoride



Open-Circuit Potential of Rhodinized Palladium Electrolyte in Contact with Hydrogen Gas. Figure A-11.



Anodic and Cathodic Polarization of Palladium Hydrogen Electrode

Figure A-12.

Electrode Potential va Hydrogen Electrode, Volta

and sending the electrical output of the cell through a resistor which radiates heat energy at a high temperature into a heat sink. The method is applicable to cooling a space capsule, with the heat exhausted into space. This concept and the thermodynamics of operation of the cell are described in the present report. The method is considered inventive at the present time, and a patent disclosure has been submitted.

3. Method of fuel cell operation in which the oxidant is chlorine trifluoride. The present report describes the experimental work done to date on this concept. It is considered an invention at present.

Monsanto Research Corporation will file a petition for waiver on the above-identified inventions in due course.